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**SCHAFER'S
ESSENTIALS OF
HISTOLOGY**

SCHAFFER'S ESSENTIALS OF HISTOLOGY

DESCRIPTIVE AND PRACTICAL.

FOR THE USE OF STUDENTS

FOURTEENTH EDITION

EDITED BY

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WITH ILLUSTRATIONS

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TO THE MEMORY OF
SIR E. SHARPEY-SCHAFER, F.R.S.

WHO ORIGINALLY WROTE
AND SUBSEQUENTLY EDITED
THIS BOOK FOR CLOSE ON
FIFTY YEARS

PREFACE

FIFTY-THREE years ago this book first appeared under the authorship of the late Sir Edward Sharpey-Schafer.

In this, the fourteenth edition, the general character of the book has been retained. The Lessons, however, have been revised and a number of the older illustrations suppressed and replaced by photographs. An innovation in regard to the latter is the absence of any reduction in size in order to obtain the maximum of detail.

The Editor is greatly indebted to Mr. E. H. Leach both for many suggestions in regard to the text and for the later proof-reading ; to Dr. R. S. Creed for comments on the eye and thalamus ; to Mr. C. S. Hallpike, F.R.C.S., for permission to use three excellent photographs from the Ferens Institute of Otology ; to Professor H. W. Florey for advice.

Finally, I would thank Mr. Thomas Marsland for his co-operation in making the new photographs.

H. M. C.

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THE ESSENTIALS OF HISTOLOGY

INTRODUCTORY.

ENUMERATION OF THE TISSUES AND GENERAL STRUCTURE OF ANIMAL CELLS.

Animal Histology¹ is the science which treats of the minute structure of the tissues and organs of the animal body; it is studied with the aid of the microscope, and is therefore also termed **Microscopic Anatomy**.

Every part or organ of the body consists of certain textures or tissues, which differ in their arrangement in different organs, but each of which exhibits characteristic structural features.

The chief methods of histological examination comprise :

1. **Dissociation** (or teasing).—The constituent cells of films of an organ or tissue are separated from each other by mechanical or chemical means. Dissociation with fine needles is the most common way of obtaining a sufficiently thin layer of cells for study with the microscope.

2. **The film or smear technique**.—This is used particularly in the examination of tissues of a semi-fluid or fluid nature, and is the standard method for blood and lymph. After making such a smear by mechanical means it is customary to stain it. In this way differentiation between the various types of cell and cell-component is greatly aided.

3. **The sectional method**.—This involves the cutting of tissues into very thin slices, usually 5 to 10 μ in thickness.² It has the great advantage over methods 1 and 2 in that the relations of cells and tissues to one another are accurately preserved.

The following is a list of the principal tissues which compose the body :

Epithelial.

→ **Connective** : Areolar, Fibrous, Elastic, Reticular, Lymphoid, Adipose, Cartilage, Bone.

Muscular : Voluntary or striated, Involuntary or plain, Cardiac.

Nervous.

↪ **Blood and Lymph.**

Some organs are formed of several of the above tissues, others contain only one or two.

¹ From *istós*, a web or texture.

² The micron (or μ) is the standard unit of measurement in microscopy. $1 \mu = \frac{1}{1000}$ of a millimetre = $\frac{1}{25400}$ of an inch.

It is convenient to include such fluids as the *blood* and *lymph* among the tissues, because they are studied in the same manner and contain cell-elements similar to those met with in some of the other tissues.

All the tissues are, prior to differentiation, masses of *cells* (embryonic cells). In some tissues elements become developed which take the form of *fibres*. Thus, the epithelial tissues are composed throughout life entirely of cells, only slightly modified in structure, and the nervous and muscular tissues consist of cells which are greatly modified to form the characteristic elements of those tissues. On the other hand, in the connective tissues an amorphous material becomes formed between the cells which is termed *intercellular substance* or *ground-substance*, and in this substance fibres make their appearance, sometimes, as in the fibrous connective tissues, in so large an amount as to occupy the whole of the intercellular substance, and greatly to preponderate over the cells. This ground-substance, by virtue of its incorporating a certain amount of inorganic chlorides, has the property of becoming stained brown or black by silver nitrate and subsequent exposure to light, in which case the cells, which remain unstained, look like white spaces (cell-spaces) in the ground-substance (see fig. 97). When an epithelial tissue or an epithelium-like arrangement of cells is similarly treated, the narrow interstices between the cells are also stained (see fig. 79), from which it is concluded that a similar substance exists in small amount between the cells of such a tissue. It has here been termed cement-substance, but it is better to apply to it the general term *intercellular substance*.

The cells of a tissue are not always separate from one another, but are in some cases connected by bridges of the cell-substance, which pass across the intercellular spaces. This is especially the case with the cells of the

higher plants, but it has also been found to occur in many animal tissues; *e.g.*, in some varieties of epithelium (see figs. 75, 76). Occasionally the connexion of the cells of a tissue is even closer, and lines of separation between them are faint or absent. The term *syncytium* is given to any such united mass of cells.

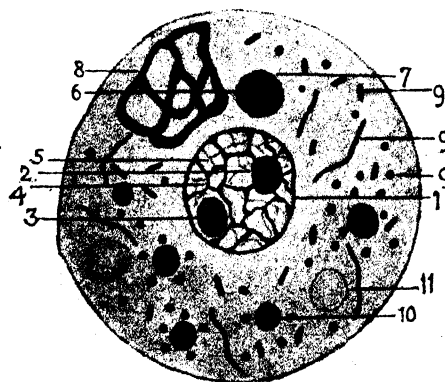


FIG. 1.—DIAGRAM OF CELL.
(H. M. Carleton.) Highly magnified.

- 1, nucleus; 2, karyosome; 3, nucleolus (plasmosome); 4, chromatin meshwork of nucleus; 5, linn meshwork; 6, centriole; 7, centrosome; 8, Golgi apparatus; 9, 9, mitochondria (granular, rod-shaped, thread-like); 10, metaplastic incisions; 11, vacuoles.

Some of the structures shown in this diagram are visible only in fixed and stained specimens. Others, such as 11, are best observed in fixed and stained material.

THE STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONAL CHANGES OF CELLS (CYTOLOGY).

A cell (fig. 1) is a minute portion of living substance (*protoplasm* or *cytoplasm*) which is enclosed by a *cell-membrane* and always contains a specially differentiated part which is known as the *nucleus*.

The study of the changes which the several parts of a cell undergo during life in the performance of its functions constitutes an important part of Physiology.

PROTOPLASM OR CYTOPLASM.

In living cells (fig. 8) the cytoplasm is seen with difficulty as a colourless, apparently fluid matrix, but it may contain various inclusions which are more apparent. There has been much discussion as to the structure of cytoplasm; but in all probability living protoplasm is devoid of structure, other than that met with in colloidal fluids generally. Various appearances of structure—granular, reticular, fibrillar—may be exhibited by it after fixation and staining, but these in many cases have been determined by the action of the fixative which has been employed, and do not necessarily represent modifications of structure.

The chief components of the cell are the following :

A. CYTOPLASM.

1. **Cell-membrane.**—A fine pellicle covers the exterior of the protoplasm of all living cells. This pellicle is composed of a material which, although

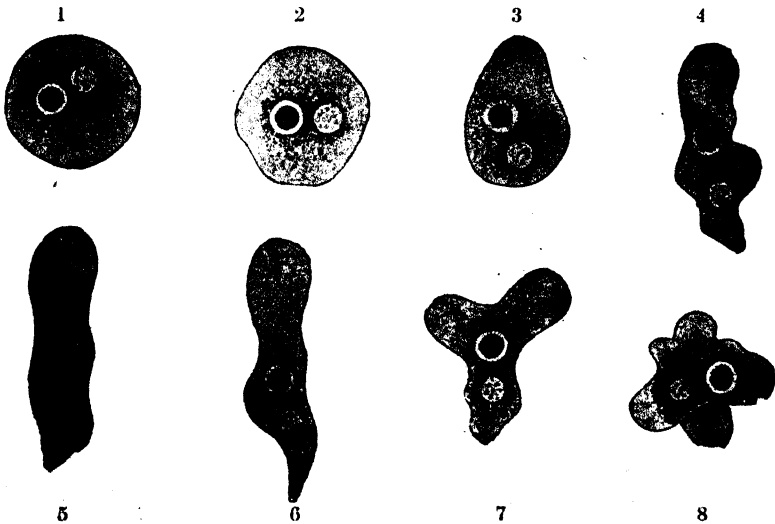


FIG. 2.—SUCCESSIVE CHANGES EXHIBITED BY AN AMOEB. (Verworn.)

not soluble in water, is permeable to watery fluids, and may even allow the passage of solids without permanent rupture. It has been suggested by Overton that such a material may be furnished by the lipoids. In plant cells and in some animal cells there is a thick cell-membrane; but it is then of a special nature (in plants composed of *cellulose*). Micro-dissection has shown that the surface film of the protoplasm of a free cell like the amoeba

can be stretched and ruptured, and, within limits, when broken it will rejoin. Functionally, the layer acts as a semi-permeable membrane: it allows certain substances to pass into the cell, and others to diffuse out.

It has been found, by micro-dissection, that the outer portion of the cytoplasm of such a cell as the *amœba* is more viscous (gel) than the endoplasm, which is entirely fluid (sol). This is also true of leucocytes (fig. 3).

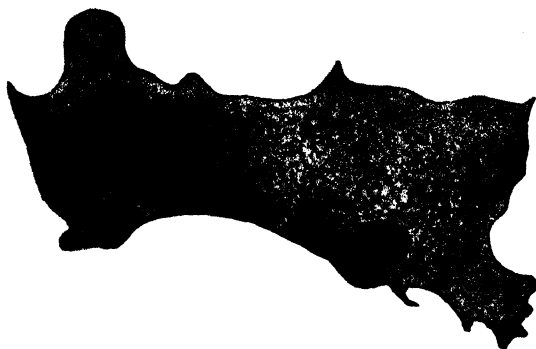


FIG. 3.—PHOTOGRAPH OF LEUCOCYTE OF TRITON, FIXED WHILST IN AMŒBOID CONDITION BY JET OF STEAM DIRECTED ON TO COVER-GLASS, AND SUBSEQUENTLY STAINED WITH HÆMATOXYLIN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 1360$. Untouched photograph.

The protoplasm shows an internal granular endoplasm and a clear ectoplasm.

Micro-dissection.—The dissection of living cells is effected by microscopically fine quartz or glass needles, mounted in a special apparatus for manipulating them mechanically. By using hollow needles, fluids can be introduced into the cell through the surface film. By this means it has been possible, with the aid of indicator dyes, to determine the pH of the cytoplasm in living cells.

Proceeding in this way, R. Chambers found the pH of the living nucleus in various cells of *Rana* and *Necturus* to be about 7.5, whether normal or injured, but the pH of the cytoplasm to be distinctly more acid, being about 6.9 in the normal state, and about 5.3 when injured and cytolyzing. J. and D. M. Needham found the pH of the cytoplasm of *Amœba proteus* to be about 7.5: Pollack puts it lower (6.6 to 7.2), but the variety of *Amœba* may have been different. The cytoplasm has considerable buffering power and resists the action of acids if not in excess. The oxidation-reduction intensity (rH) has been similarly determined.

Remarkable results have been obtained by injecting into the interior of the cytoplasm substances which are toxic when added to the environment. Thus Pollack, working with Chambers, found that a solution of picric acid or fairly strong alcohol can be introduced into the cytoplasm without producing any deleterious effect, and Brinley makes the same statement for hydrocyanic acid and cyanides.

The injection of salts of the monovalent electrolytes, Na and K, increases the fluidity of the cytoplasm, whilst the salts of Ca and Mg produce coagulation. The electrolytes appear to maintain a balanced condition of the colloids in living protoplasm, being so proportioned that the coagulating action of one kind is offset by the dispersive action of the other kind.

If the surface pellicle of a cell is torn the fluid protoplasm may exude, but the exudation immediately forms a new membrane around itself; this, however, occurs only in the presence of calcium salts.

By the method of micro-dissection it has also been determined that the astral configurations (division, spindle, etc.) seen during cell-division are gelated portions

of the cytoplasm. The mitochondria and the chromosomes also appear to be gels: they can be stretched by the micro-needles and on release regain their original length.

2. Centriole.—All cells of the higher animals which are still capable of mitotic division contain this body. Highly specialised cells, which have lost the capability of reproduction, such as nerve-cells, are without it. In rounded or polyhedral cells the centriole lies close to the nucleus; it is often double. In elongated cells (e.g., in columnar epithelium) it usually lies between the nucleus and the free end of the cell. It is very resistant to reagents. It is deeply stained by iron-hæmatoxylin. When a cell is about to divide, its centriole divides first, and the two centrioles thus produced gradually separate from one another and pass to opposite poles of the cell. From each of the two centrioles a number of what appear to be fine fibres diverge towards the equator of the dividing nucleus and, joining with those from the opposite centriole, constitute what is known as the *achromatic spindle* (p. 20), to which the divided chromosomes of the nucleus become attached, and along which they appear to be guided towards the centrioles to constitute the daughter nuclei.

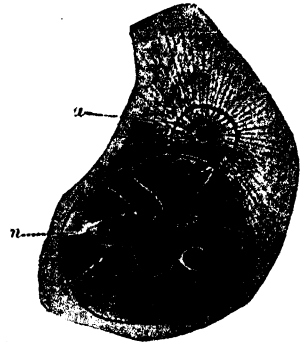


FIG. 4.—A CELL (WHITE BLOOD-CORPUSCLE) SHOWING ITS CENTRIOLE AND CENTROSOME. (M. Heidenhain.)

In this, as in most cases, the centrosome, *a*, lies near the nucleus, *n*.

In some cells the centrioles are multiple; this is frequently the case with leucocytes, and always with giant-cells found in bone-marrow and elsewhere



FIG. 5.—SPERMATOCYTE OF SALAMANDER, SHOWING ACHROMATIC FIBRES OF SPINDLE AND OTHER FIBRES RADIATING FROM CENTRIOLES. (Flemming.)

Four chromosomes are represented at the equator of the spindle.

(fig. 6). The cytoplasm immediately surrounding the centriole is often different in appearance from the rest, and forms a small sphere known as the *centrosome*. This is sometimes itself enveloped by a feltwork of irregular filamentous particles which form a capsular covering to it (M. Heidenhain, Champy and Gley). No centriole has

been found in the cells of the higher plants, although centrosomes and archoplasmic fibres are well marked in them, especially during cell-division.

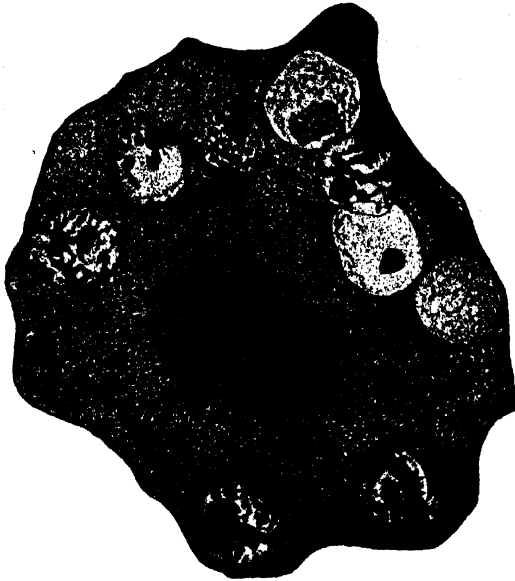


FIG. 6.—MULTI-NUCLEATED GIANT-CELL FROM LYMPH GLAND OF RABBIT. (M. Heidenhain.)



FIG. 7.—A GIANT-CELL (FROM BONE OF EMBRYO CHICK OF 10½ DAYS) STAINED WITH IRON-HEMATOXYLIN TO EXHIBIT THE MITOCHONDRIA. (Honor B. Fell.)

The cell has been produced by the coalescence of smaller cells: cell-boundaries are seen at *ch*.

3. **Mitochondria.**¹—These are either punctate, rod-like, or filamentous bodies (fig. 7); they appear to exist in all cells, plant and animal. They can

¹ From *μίτρος*, a thread, and *χένδρος*, a grain.

be observed in the living cell when viewed with dark ground illumination (fig. 8); they then often appear to be in constant movement. Filamentous

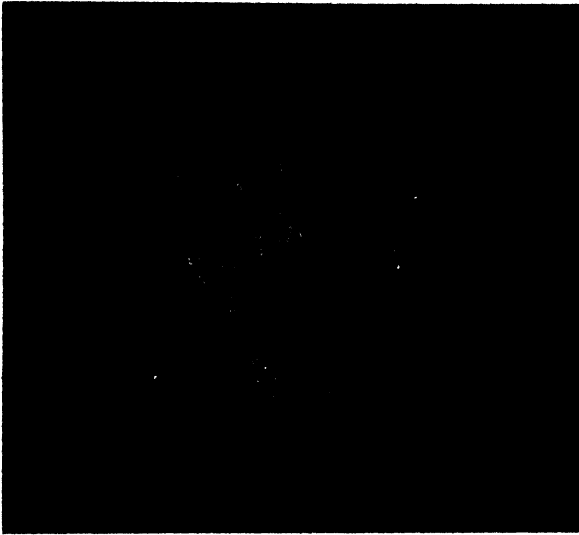


FIG. 8.—A LIVING CELL FROM A CULTURE OF EMBRYONIC CHICK TISSUE, SHOWING NUCLEUS WITH NUCLEOLI, THREAD-LIKE MITOCHONDRIA AND FAT-GLOBULES AS SEEN BY DARK GROUND ILLUMINATION. (Drawn by Honor B. Fell.) Magnified about 1000 diameters.

mitochondria have been seen to segment and reunite. In round or polyhedral cells the mitochondria are generally evenly distributed (fig. 9), but in elongated cells, such as the columnar cells of the intestine, they form two groups, one at each end of the cell. Mitochondria are composed of lipines and proteins, the former being in larger proportion than in the rest of the cytoplasm. They contain glutathion and can be selectively stained within the living cell by Janus green.

It is believed that mitochondria play an important part in the production of special structures and materials, such as enzymes, which occur in the cytoplasm of many cells. They are often termed collectively *chondriome*.

4. Apparatus of Golgi.—This is usually not distinct in the living cell, but in fixed cells suitably stained it is very plain, usually taking the form of a network embedded in the cytoplasm near the nucleus (fig. 10). In spherical or polyhedral cells the network is arranged around the nucleus (fig. 11); in elongated or cubical cells it is generally placed near one pole. It often occurs in the form of scattered particles in place of a continuous network.



FIG. 9.—TWO LIVER CELLS OF RABBIT, SHOWING NUCLEI, NUCLEOLI AND MITOCHONDRIA. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 1000$.

One of the cells has two nuclei. Each nucleus has two nucleoli.

The Golgi apparatus, like the mitochondria, appears to be composed of proteins and lipines—the latter preponderating. There seems to be no doubt that both mitochondria and Golgi apparatus are concerned with metabolism within the cell. In secreting cells the Golgi apparatus undergoes functional changes of form and position.

5. **Vacuoles.**—These are best shown by placing living cells in a dilute solution of the dye neutral red, this being taken up by the watery contents of the vacuoles. The relationship of the latter to the Golgi bodies is the subject of a controversy. Parat has noted that the localization of the neutral red vacuoles in the living cell is usually the same as that of the Golgi apparatus in stained preparations. There is also often a certain amount of lipide material around the vacuoles. On the above (and other) evidence Parat and many other Histologists believe that the Golgi bodies are artefacts produced by the action of reagents on the vacuoles and on the surrounding lipide material. Those who hold that the Golgi network exists during life,

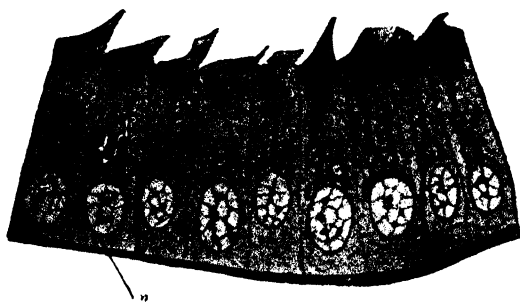


FIG. 10.—CELLS OF EPIDIDYMIS, SHOWING RETICULAR GOLGI APPARATUS IN THE CYTOPLASM. (E. Holmgren.)

n, nucleus.

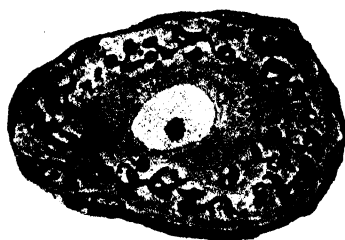


FIG. 11.—GOLGI RETICULUM IN A SPINAL GANGLION-CELL OF CAT. $\times 750$. (From a preparation by W. Penfield.)

A reticulum can also be seen in the cells of the capsule. Note the minute particles (nucleolini) in the nucleolus.

while not denying the existence of vacuoles, do not regard them as being associated with the Golgi bodies. According to this view the reason why the latter are usually invisible as a network in the living cell is that the Golgi elements are of the same refractive index as the surrounding cytoplasm. Cowdry and Scott have made the interesting observation that Golgi bodies may be seen to be formed from neutral red vacuoles in living malarial parasites; further, when formed by fusion of the vacuoles the resulting structures can be stained like the Golgi bodies with osmium tetroxide.

6. **Metaplasmic inclusions.**—Products of cell-activity in the shape of granules or globules (of zymogen, mucigen, or of unknown nature) are formed in the cytoplasm of many cells, and may be discharged from it to serve some purpose in the organism. These occur most prominently, but by no means exclusively, in the cells of secreting glands (fig. 12). Both mitochondria and the material of the Golgi apparatus have been described as taking part in the formation of such granules. Some unicellular organisms possess rhythmically contractile vacuoles: these have been supposed to exercise an excretory function.

In addition to the above a number of reserve products, mostly nutritive, are also stored within cells. The most important of these in animal cells are fats, lipoids, and carbohydrates, especially glycogen.

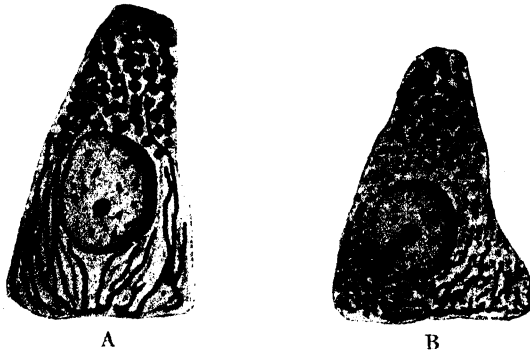


FIG. 12.—TWO PANCREAS CELLS, HIGHLY MAGNIFIED, SHOWING FILAMENTOUS MITOCHONDRIA AND SECRETION GRANULES. (Champy.)

A, resting condition; B, condition during secretion.

Fat occurs in the form of droplets within the cytoplasm. When abundant these fuse to form one or more large drops.

Lipoid substances, apart from those which form an integral part of protoplasm, occur in the shape of globules, such as the yolk-particles in

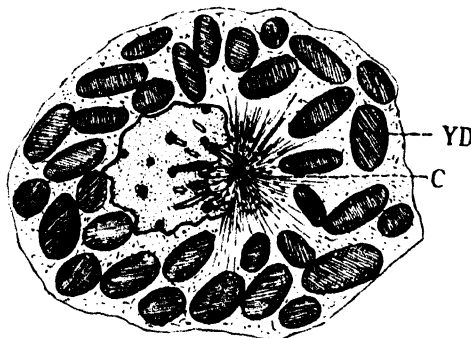


FIG. 13.—YOLK DISKS OR GLOBULES WITHIN CELL OF TRITON EMBRYO. (Champy and Carleton.) Highly magnified.

YD, yolk-disks; C, centriole, with astral rays. It will be seen that the outline of the adjacent nucleus is deformed under their influence.

embryonic cells (fig. 13), or in the form of crystals, as in the cells of the suprarenal cortex.

Glycogen occurs in many organs and tissues of the adult, especially liver and muscle, and in nearly all foetal tissues. In common with fat and lipid globules, glycogen is seen only in suitably fixed cells, in which it has probably been precipitated from a pre-existing state of colloidal solution.

Deposition of these substances in a cell may be preceded by an accumulation of mitochondria at the seat of deposit.

Chemical constitution.—The cytoplasm of the living cell consists of a complex mixture of colloids (emulsoids). Usually the colloidal matter is in the *sol*, sometimes in the *gel*, condition. In the former case, the colloidal particles, examined with the dark ground condenser, may be seen in active Brownian motion.

Chemically cytoplasm consists of proteins and nucleoproteins associated with carbohydrates, fats and lipoids; it also contains various inorganic salts. These constituents are mostly in solution, for from 50 to 90 per cent. of water enters into its composition. The *membrane* of the cell contains such lipoids as lecithin, as well as cholesterol; these substances also compose, at least in part, the *nucleus*, the *mitochondria* and the *Golgi apparatus*.

Properties of living matter.—Living cells exhibit (1) irritability or the property of responding to stimuli; (2) chemical (metabolic) changes which result in assimilation or the taking in of nutrient matter and its conversion into living substance (anabolism), and disassimilation, the breaking down of such substance (katabolism); (3) reproduction, resulting in the multiplication of individuals. Of these properties, (2) and (3) are governed by the nucleus, and (3) is initiated by the centriole. The irritability of the cell depends mainly upon the protoplasm. It is in consequence of this property that protoplasm reacts, sometimes by contraction, sometimes by relaxation, to mechanical, chemical, thermal and electrical stimuli, and in the case of some cells (*e.g.*, the pigment-cells and cones of the retina) to the stimulus of light. The amoeboid movements of cells are also a manifestation of irritability, being produced and influenced by various external conditions (stimuli). Sometimes the result of a stimulus is to cause a cell or organism to move towards the source of excitation (attraction); in other cases the movement is in the reverse direction (repulsion). The terms positive and negative chemotaxis, phototaxis, thermotaxis, thigmotaxis, and the like, are used to indicate the nature of the effects produced by various forms of stimulation (chemical, light, heat, mechanical, and so on).

During life the cytoplasm often exhibits movements which are apparently spontaneous. When the cell is not enclosed by an unyielding membrane such as that which encloses most plant cells, a change in the shape or even in the position of the cell may be thereby produced. This is characteristically shown in the movements of the unicellular organism known as the *Amoeba* (fig. 2); hence the term *amoeboid* by which such movements and the phenomena dependent upon them are generally designated.

NUCLEUS.

The nucleus varies greatly in shape. It usually has the appearance of a vesicle bounded by a membrane. The contents of the vesicle appear to consist mainly of a homogeneous fluid material (*karyoplasm*). A well-defined spherical particle (*nucleolus*) is generally to be seen in it; and, even in the living cell, a network of fibres with enlargements at the junctions is occasionally visible (fig. 14). After the action of fixatives and stains this network is very distinct and is seen to be attached to the membrane of the nucleus (fig. 15). The nucleolus is placed at one of the junctions of the network, by which it appears to be supported. When a network is absent the nucleolus lies free in the karyoplasm (fig. 11).

The nucleus is not only concerned with cell-division and multiplication in the manner to be described, but takes an active part in the chemical (metabolic) processes which occur in the protoplasm, and is especially the seat of intracellular oxidations. Cells deprived artificially of their nuclei do not assimilate nourishment,

and lose any power of secretion they may have possessed, although the protoplasm may continue for a time to live and exhibit amoeboid movements. On the other hand, changes are caused in the nucleus by lesions of the cell-membrane, showing that nucleus and cytoplasm are interdependent (Chambers).



FIG. 14.—A LIVING LEUCOCTYE (WHITE BLOOD-CORPUSCLE) OF SALAMANDRA MACULATA, SHOWING LACE-LIKE RETICULAR APPEARANCE OF ITS PROTOPLASM. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 1200$. Untouched photograph.

An erythrocyte (red blood-corpuscle) is included in the photograph. A film of the protoplasm of the leucocyte extends over its margin.

In the resting (non-dividing) cell the nuclear contents are, as above mentioned, always contained within an apparent membrane; this membrane disappears during division, the cytoplasm and karyoplasm being then continuous. By micro-dissection it can be shown that the nuclear membrane is not solid but is composed of a viscous material, which allows itself to be drawn out by a needle, and, on being released, recovers its previous form and position.

In fixed and stained specimens, most resting nuclei exhibit, as just stated, the appearance of a network formed of a substance easily stainable, particularly by basic dyes. Like the membrane of the nucleus it also seems to be of a viscous consistency during life; although, after fixation and staining, it acquires an appearance of solidity.

The material composing this stainable substance is termed *chromatin*; this term also includes the membrane of the nucleus and certain types of nucleoli sometimes present, which are similarly stained by basic dyes.

Nuclear chromatin consists of nucleic acid (remarkable for its high phosphorus content) combined in various proportions with proteins to form the so-called

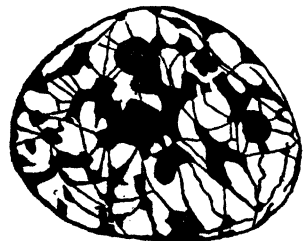


FIG. 15.—NUCLEUS OF AN EPI-
THELIAL CELL OF SALAMAN-
DER-LARVA. (M. Heidenhain.)
 $\times 2300$.

Two nucleoli are seen and several pseudo-nucleoli.

nucleins and nucleoproteins. It also contains lipoids, which are especially abundant in the membrane of the nucleus, and a relatively large amount of calcium.

There is sometimes seen in fixed and stained preparations a fine mesh (*linin network*) distinct from the chromatin (fig. 18). Its reaction towards dyes is oxyphil. It is not known if such a meshwork is present during life. It is probable that this meshwork is a fixation artifact. It cannot be demonstrated in the living cell and may be regarded as the precipitated protein matter of the nuclear sap (*Karyolymph*). Nor do those fixatives which give the most life-like fixation of the cell in general exhibit this structure.

Chromosomes.—In some resting cells the chromatin of the nucleus, instead of presenting the appearance of a network, takes the form of a convoluted filament or filaments having a skein-like arrangement (fig. 19). This is not an artefact, since it is visible in the living cell. It is always found when a nucleus is about to divide. When the filaments of chromatin are ununited to one another they are termed *chromosomes*. But in nearly all 'resting' cells the chromosomes cannot be seen as distinct structures, being merged into one another to form the network and the nuclear membrane (fig. 15). However, whether visible as distinct parts or not, the chromosomes are none the less potentially present. This is evidenced when the nucleus is dividing; in such cases its



FIG. 16.—CHROMOSOMES OF A DIVIDING NUCLEUS OF SPERMATOGON OF MAN, SHOWING THE DIFFERENCES IN FORM AND SIZE WHICH THEY PRESENT. (Winiwarter and Oguma.)

chromosomes are always separate, and their number can be counted. The number varies with the species of animal or plant: it is believed to be constant for every somatic cell of the species. In man there are 48 (24 pairs) in each cell. In the male cell (fig. 16) one chromosome is usually said to be unpaired, the sex-chromosome (fig. 17), but some authorities hold that this also is double.

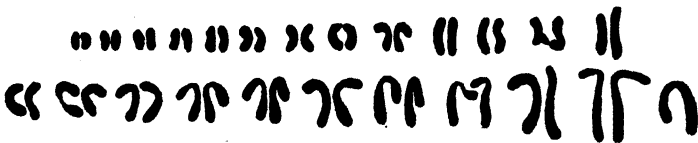


FIG. 17.—CHROMOSOMES OF A DIVIDING NUCLEUS OF SPERMATOGON OF MAN, ARRANGED IN ORDER OF SIZE AND SHAPE TO EXHIBIT THE PAIRS. (Winiwarter and Oguma.)

It will be seen that there are altogether 23 pairs of chromosomes (those of each pair being alike, but those of different pairs varying greatly in size and shape) and 1 unpaired, the sex-chromosome.

Chromosomes belonging to the same nucleus may be approximately of the same size and shape, but this is by no means always the case, some being short and then usually straight, others longer and then generally V-shaped (figs. 16, 17). They are usually linear, but in some cases are represented merely by particles of chromatin.

The cells of cultures from human embryos were found by Tage Kemp

to have 48 chromosomes, varying in length from $1\ \mu$ to $8\ \mu$ and in thickness from $0.5\ \mu$ to $1\ \mu$.

With high magnification some chromosomes may be seen to be made up

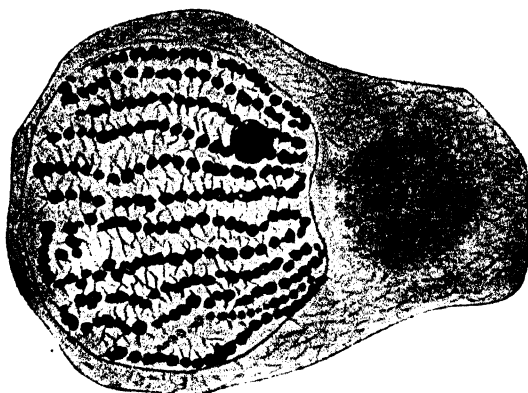


FIG. 18.—SPERMATOCYTE OF PROTEUS, SHOWING CHROMOSOMES OF NUCLEUS FORMED OF PARTICLES OF CHROMATIN UNITED BY ACHROMATIC FILAMENTS. (F. Hermann.)

The nucleolus is distinct from the chromosomes. In the cytoplasm an archoplasmic mass.

of fine juxtaposed particles (*chromomeres*) arranged either in single or double rows (figs. 18, 19). The chromosomes of a nucleus are occasionally clumped together into a solid mass of chromatin, which comprehends the nucleolus



FIG. 19.—CELL SHOWING CHROMOSOMES OF NUCLEUS IN THE FORM OF THREADS COMPOSED OF DOUBLE ROWS OF CHROMOMERES. (F. Hermann.)

^c, centrosomes with uniting spindle.

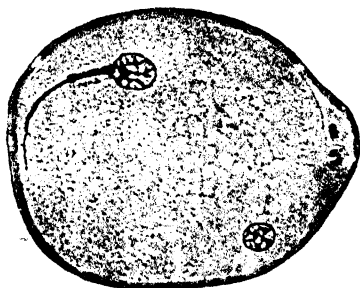


FIG. 20.—OVUM OF BAT WITH POLAR BODIES AND GERM- AND SPERM-NUCLEI. (Van der Stricht.)

The development of the sperm-nucleus from the head of the spermatozoon is very evident in this case, because the rest of the spermatozoon happens not to have been thrown off.

when this is present. A good example is the nucleus of the spermatozoon—which, however, takes on the structural appearance of an ordinary cell-nucleus after penetrating the membrane surrounding the ovum (fig. 20).

The chromosomes of the *gametes* (spermatozoa and ova) are undoubtedly the structures which convey genetic characteristics to the offspring. Each gamete has one-half of the somatic number, and therefore twenty-four in man. When the gametes unite to form the *zygote* (the fertilised ovum) the latter acquires the full somatic number. In the subsequent division and subdivision of the fertilised ovum the chromosomes participate in such division, and convey specific characteristics of the parents to every cell in the reproduced organism. The chromosomes are themselves composed of minute ultra-microscopic particles which appear to be the actual agents or carriers (*genes*) on which the hereditary transmission of the ancestral characteristics depends.

Nucleolus.—The nucleolus is a homogeneous spherical body, of which one or more may be present in a nucleus. By the reaction to dyes two types of nucleoli can be recognised—one staining especially with basic dyes: this, during mitosis, furnishes part of the material for the chromosomes; and a second staining with acid dyes: this disappears during mitosis without blending with the chromosomes. The two are respectively distinguished by the names *karyosome* and *plasmosome*. The nucleolus can frequently be observed to exhibit spontaneous movements in the living cell. Both kinds of nucleoli may contain special particles termed *nucleolini*, which do not disappear during mitosis (Carleton).

CELL-DIVISION.

The chromatin within the nucleus may be observed to undergo spontaneous changes of form and arrangement; these changes become very

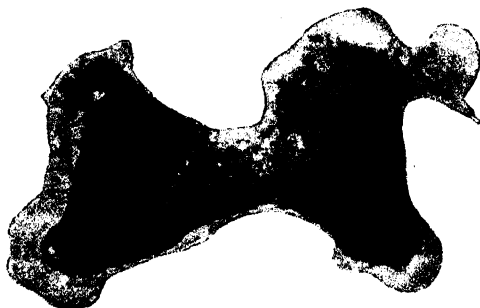


FIG. 21.—A LEUCOCYTE OF TRITON APPARENTLY UNDERGOING AMITOTIC DIVISION OF ITS NUCLEUS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 1360$. Untouched photograph.

The nucleus is separated into two nearly equal parts, and the protoplasm is collecting around them and is constricted in the intermediate part of the corpuscle. The corpuscle was fixed by a jet of steam and stained with hamatoxylin.

evident during cell-division. The division of the cytoplasm is always preceded by that of the nucleus, the chromosomes of which undergo a series of remarkable transformations which are known collectively by the term *karyokinesis* (Schleicher) or *mitosis* (Flemming).

But sometimes the nucleus divides by a process of fission without karyokinetic changes: this is termed *amitotic division* (figs. 21, 22). It occurs in comparatively few situations, and is often not followed by the

division of the cell, so that it is apt to result in the formation of bi-nucleated and multi-nucleated cells, as in the superficial layer of the epithelium of the urinary bladder (fig. 22) and in some of the giant-cells of bone-marrow (fig. 6). The occurrence of amitotic division has by some been regarded as a sign of degenerative changes in the cell, but this is probably not the case. It has been caused, in cells which normally divide mitotically, by chemical changes in their environment.

Mitotic division.—The division of the nucleus is preceded by the division of the centrosome. The dividing nucleus passes through a series of phases (figs. 23, 24) as follows :

1. The network of chromatin filaments of the resting nucleus becomes transformed into a *skein*, formed apparently of one long, convoluted filament.

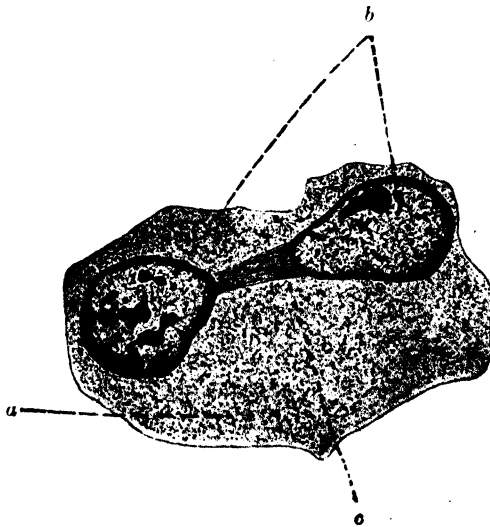


FIG. 22.—CELL OF BLADDER EPITHELIUM, SHOWING SUPPOSED AMITOTIC DIVISION OF NUCLEUS. (Nemileff.)

a, cytoplasm ; b, daughter nuclei ; c, strand of fibrils uniting daughter nuclei.

The nuclear membrane and the nucleoli are merged into the skein. This is known as the *spireme phase*.

2. The skein breaks into a number of chromosomes, the number varying, as already stated, with the species of animal or plant. In one variety of *Ascaris megalocephala* there are only four chromosomes ; in man, forty-eight ; other plants and animals have more or fewer, but they are almost always multiples of two.

3. As soon as the chromosomes are distinct they become arranged radially around the equator of the nucleus ; if V-shaped they look like a star when viewed from either pole of the cell (*equatorial* or *aster phase*).

4. Each chromosome splits longitudinally into two, so that they are now twice as numerous as before (*cleavage phase*). This longitudinal cleavage may occur at an earlier stage.

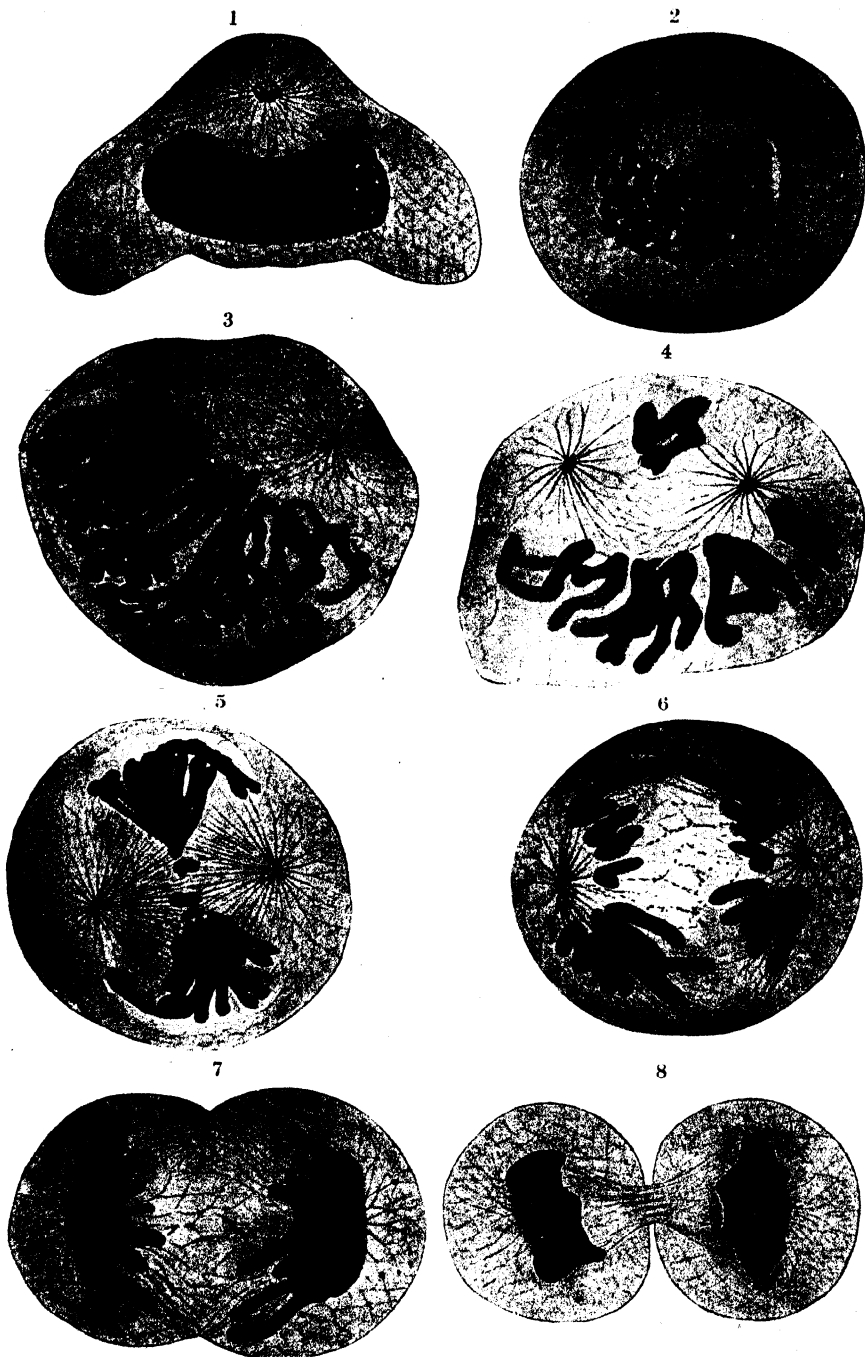


FIG. 23.—KARYOKINESIS OF RED BLOOD CELL OF LARVAL *LEPIDOSIREN*. (T. H. Bryce.)

1, Cell prior to division, centrosome single, nucleus a dense network; 2, centrosome double, nucleus a dense spireme; 3, spireme breaking up into chromosomes; 4, division spindle forming, chromosomes V-shaped; 5, V-shaped chromosomes collected at equator of spindle, and undergoing longitudinal splitting; 6, the chromosomes which result from the splitting have become thicker and shorter, and are passing towards the centrosomes at the poles of the spindle to form the daughter nuclei; 7, 8, daughter nuclei formed by agglomeration of chromosomes, cytoplasm dividing.

5. The chromosomes separate into two groups, the ends (if they are V-shaped) being for a time interlocked (*phase of separation*).

6. The two groups pass to the opposite poles of the now elongated nucleus

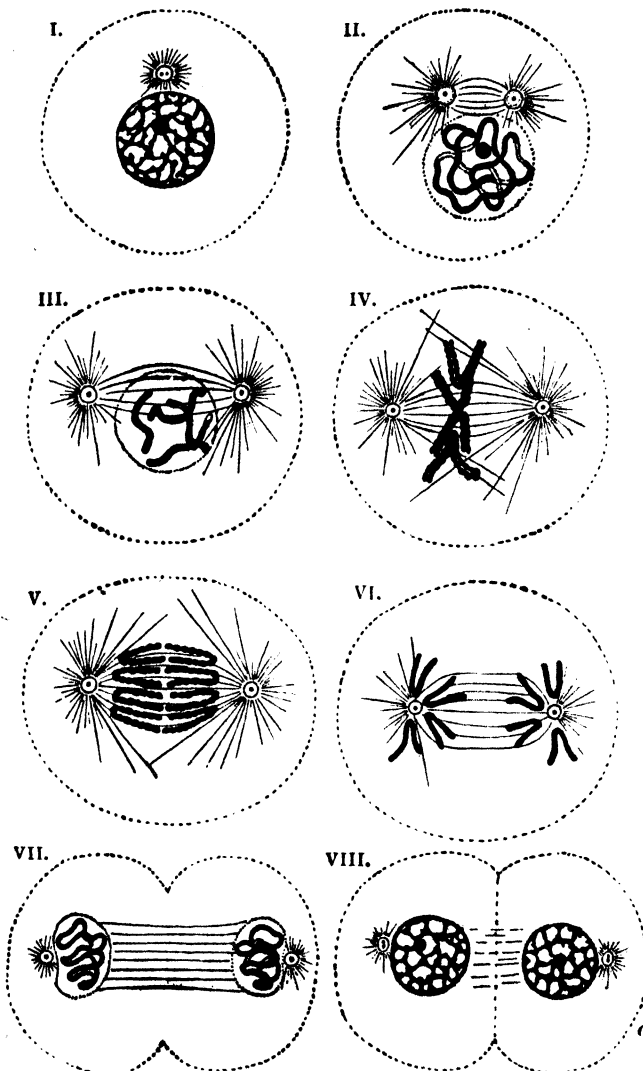


FIG. 24.—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE CHANGES WHICH OCCUR IN THE CENTROSOMES AND NUCLEUS OF A CELL IN THE PROCESS OF MITOTIC DIVISION.

The nucleus is supposed to have four chromosomes.

and form a star-shaped figure at each pole. Each of the stars represents a daughter nucleus (*diaster phase*).

7, 8. Each star of the diaster goes through the same changes as the original nucleus, but in the reverse order—viz., a skein, at first more open

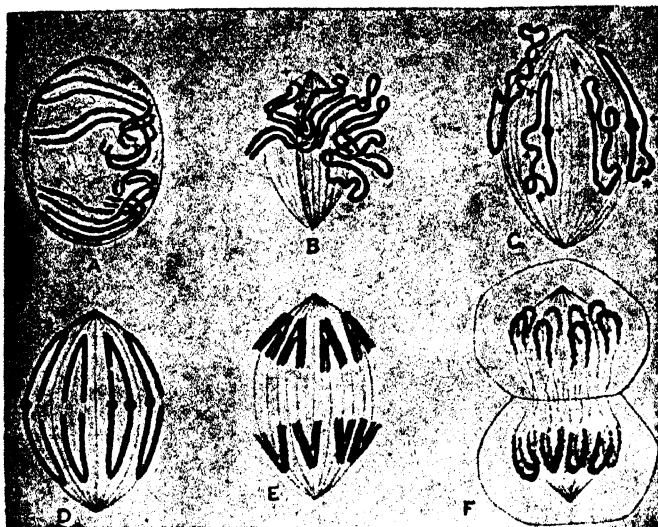


FIG. 25.—DIAGRAM OF THE CHANGES SHOWN IN HETEROTYPICAL MITOSIS, EIGHT CHROMOSOMES BEING REPRESENTED.

In A and B they are arranged in pairs; in C they are united into four loops, which are separating in D. In E a longitudinal splitting of each chromosome is occurring. F, daughter nuclei each with eight chromosomes.

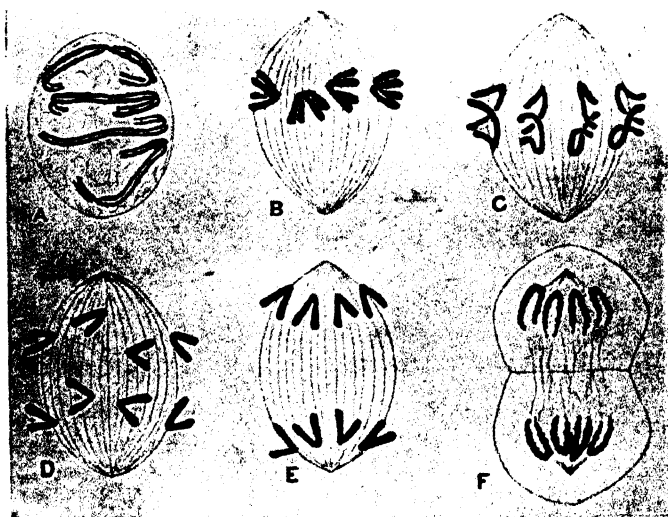


FIG. 26.—DIAGRAM OF THE CHANGES OCCURRING IN REDUCTION MITOSIS.

In A and B the eight chromosomes are united into pairs; in C, D, and E they are shown separating from one another, without any longitudinal cleavage. F, daughter nuclei each with only four chromosomes (*reduction-division*).

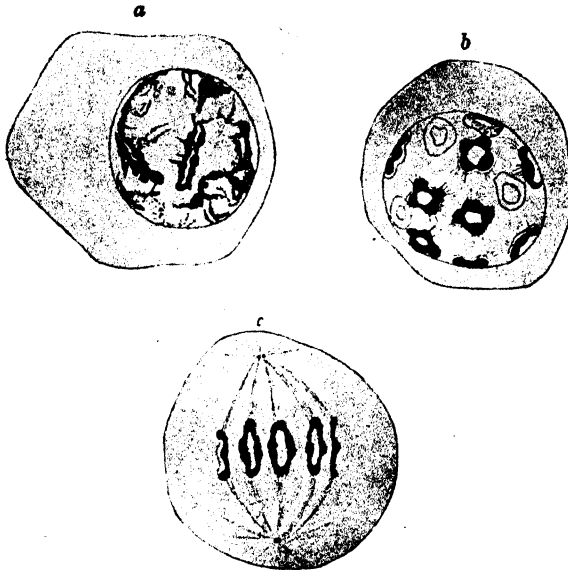


FIG. 27.—THREE STAGES OF HETEROTYPICAL MITOSIS IN SPERMATOCYTE OF TRITON. (Moore.)

a, geminal condition of chromosomes; *b*, gemini arranged in quadrate loops or tetrads; *c*, separation of tetrads into the duplex chromosomes of the daughter nuclei.

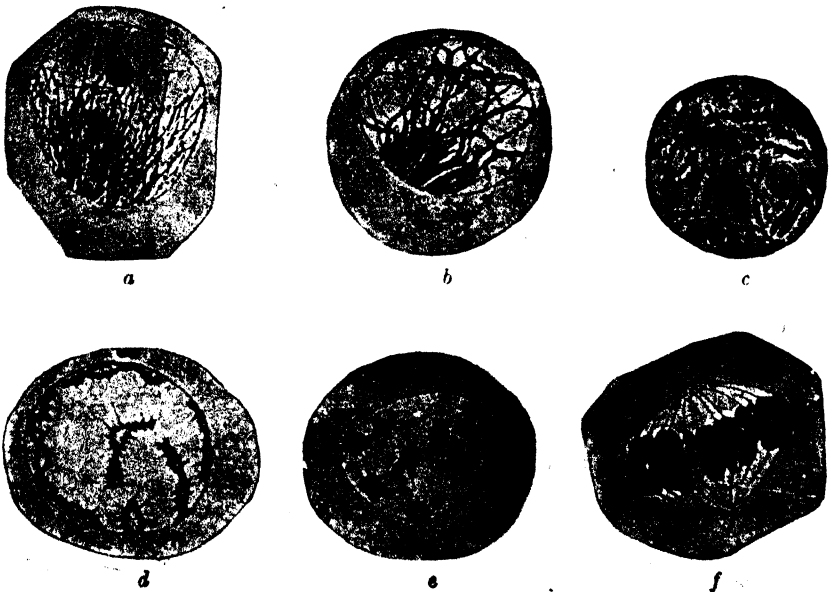


FIG. 28.—SPERMATOCYTES OF MYXINE SHOWING SYNAPTIC CONDITION IN *a* AND *b*, GEMINAL CONDITION IN *c* AND *d*, AND FORMATION OF TETRADS AND CHROMOSOME RINGS IN *e* AND *f*. (Schreiner.)

and rosette-like, then a closer skein, then a network ; passing finally into the condition typical of the resting nucleus.

The splitting and separation of the chromosomes is often spoken of as the *metaphase*, the stages leading up to this being termed the *prophase* or *anaphase*, and those which lead away from it the *kataphase*, the final stage being spoken of as the *telophase*. But these terms are sometimes used differently, and it is better to avoid them.

The time occupied in division varies, but is generally about an hour. It is quicker in warm-blooded than in cold-blooded animals. For a given cell a rise of temperature of 10° C. doubles the rate of mitosis ; thus conforming to the law of Van 't Hoff and Arrhenius for chemical reactions.

The mode of division of the nuclear chromatin above described is known as *somatic* division, to distinguish it from two modes of division which are only seen normally in the formation of the gametes (spermatozoa and ova), and are known as *heterotypical division* and *reduction division* (figs. 25, 26).

Heterotypical division (which immediately precedes the reduction) is characterised by a peculiar arrangement of the chromosomes, which, before separating to pass to the daughter nuclei, tend to adhere together in the form of loops or rings, or in the case of short straight chromosomes into small quadrangular masses (tetrads) (see figs. 27, 28). In the reduction division the chromosomes do not undergo the usual longitudinal splitting, but one-half of the total number passes into each daughter nucleus, so that the number of chromosomes in each of these is only one-half the usual somatic number.

It is further noteworthy that the gametes, before undergoing heterotypical mitosis, show a remarkable series of changes in their nuclear chromatin, which exhibits, prior to the formation of tetrads, a condition of entanglement which is known as a *synapsis* (fig. 28, *a* and *b*) in which the individual chromosomes cannot be distinguished. This change occurs in the male gamete immediately before the heterotypical mitosis, but long prior to that in the female gamete, in which it is followed by a prolonged period of nuclear quiescence.

The protoplasm of the cell divides soon after the separation of the chromosomes to form the daughter nuclei (figs. 23, 24). During cell-division fine lines are often seen in the protoplasm of fixed cells radiating from the centrioles at the pole of the nucleus, while other lines form a system of fibres diverging from the poles towards the equator. This system is termed the *achromatic spindle*.

The centrioles, as we have seen, always initiate the division of the cell ; indeed they are often found divided in the resting nucleus, the two particles being united by a small achromatic spindle. When mitosis is about to take place this spindle enlarges, and as the changes in the chromatin of the nucleus which have been above described occur—which changes involve the disappearance of the nuclear membrane—the spindle gradually passes into the middle of the mitotic nucleus, with the two poles of the spindle at the poles of the nucleus, and with the fibres of the spindle therefore completely traversing the nucleus (figs. 23, 24). The spindle fibres

appear to form directing lines along which the chromosomes pass, after the cleavage, towards the nuclear poles to form the daughter nuclei. They perhaps represent lines of stress within the viscous fluid of the karyoplasm.

Observation of mitotic division during life.¹—By cultivating fragments of tissue *in vitro* it is possible to observe the whole course of mitosis in growing tissue; it is found that many of the appearances seen in fixed material can also be seen in the living cell. A living fibroblast which is about to divide *in vitro* slowly loses its amœboid form and becomes rounded or oval. The nucleoli gradually dissolve, whilst at the same time delicate filaments (the early chromosomes) appear in the nucleoplasm, and 'these are frequently seen in active writhing movement like eels in a box' (Strangeways). The nuclear outline then vanishes and the spindle appears as a rather clear area of cytoplasm in which it is difficult to distinguish definite fibres with certainty. Meanwhile the chromosomes thicken and contract and move irregularly towards the equator of the cell where, after much shifting of position and rearrangement, they finally settle down into the equatorial phase. They remain in this position for some minutes. Quite suddenly each chromosome can be seen to split longitudinally, and the two groups of daughter chromosomes draw apart and pass fairly quickly to opposite poles of the cell. At the same time a constriction appears round the equator of the cytoplasm, the chromosomes contract into a clump of short, thick rods, and the cytoplasm itself exhibits a remarkable, active bubbling movement at the surface. The equatorial constriction soon cuts the cell into two portions, the bubbling movement gradually ceases, and the two groups of chromosomes become diffuse, forming two small daughter nuclei. The cytoplasm of each cell spreads out into the typical amœboid form, the chromosome filaments in the nuclei become indistinguishable and nucleoli reappear. Mitosis, from the onset of prophase to the formation of the daughter cells, occupies about one hour. After an interval of eleven to twelve hours a daughter cell may again divide (Strangeways).

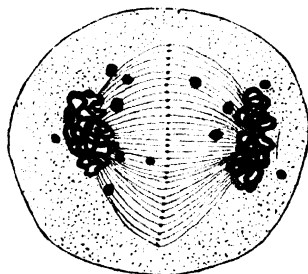


FIG. 29.—CELL-PLATE IN DIVIDING SPORE-CELL OF LILY.

In some cells, especially in plants, the line of division of the cytoplasm of the cell becomes marked out by thickenings upon the fibres of the spindle which occur just in the plane of subsequent division, and have been termed collectively the *cell-plate* (fig. 29). But in most animal cells no cell-plate is formed, the cytoplasm simply becoming constricted into two parts midway between the two daughter nuclei. Each daughter cell so formed retains one of the two centrioles of the spindle as its own centriole, and, when the daughter cells are in their turn again about to divide, this centriole divides first and forms a new spindle, and the whole process goes on as before. Rarely the division of a nucleus is into three or more parts instead of two. In such cases the centriole becomes correspondingly multiplied, and the achromatic system of fibres takes a more complex form than the simple spindle.

In living cells² the spindle appears as a refractile and homogeneous body,

¹ I am indebted to Dr. Honor Fell for this account of the appearances seen in the living cell during mitosis.

² An excellent discussion of the dynamics of cell-division will be found in Gray's *Experimental Cytology* (1931); also in Heilbrunn's *Outline of General Physiology* (1937).

which has been shown by micro-dissection to be an elastic gel. After fixation, fibres can generally be detected in it. The available evidence, however, while pointing to these fibres being artefacts indicates a state of tension in the spindle during life.

The mitochondria appear to be passively carried into each daughter cell during division of the cytoplasm: probably they also undergo division. The Golgi apparatus usually breaks up into a number of curved rodlets when the cell begins to divide, as shown by Gateby. These also are carried into the daughter cells.

Division of the ovum.—Usually the two daughter cells are of equal size; but there is a notable exception in the case of the ovum, which, prior to fertilisation, divides by heterotypical mitosis into two very unequal parts, the larger of which retains the designation of ovum, while the smaller, which becomes detached from it, is known as the *first polar body*. In the formation of a *second polar body* the *reduction-division* occurs, and the nucleus of the ovum, after the two polar bodies are extruded (now the *female gamete*), contains only one-half the number of chromosomes that it had previously; e.g., twenty-four in man in place of the normal somatic number of forty-eight. Should fertilisation supervene, the chromosomes which are lacking are supplied by the male gamete (spermatozoon), the nucleus of which has also undergone similar heterotypical and reduction changes in the final divisions by which it was produced, the number of its chromosomes being brought down to one-half of the normal or somatic number. The reduced nuclei—formed respectively from the remainder of the nucleus of the ovum after extrusion of the polar bodies, and from the head of the spermatozoon, which contains its nucleus—are known (within the ovum) as the *sperm- and germ-nuclei*, or the *male and female pro-nuclei*. In fertilisation these coalesce, and the ovum then again contains a nucleus with the number of chromosomes normal to the species. When it divides, each daughter cell is found to contain the normal or somatic number of chromosomes, derived from the splitting of both the male and female chromosomes, half the number from the one and half from the other (fig. 30), so that every cell in the body has the same number of chromosomes, one-half derived from the male parent and one-half from the female.

Determination of sex.¹—It has been shown in an ever-increasing number of species that the sexes are to be distinguished by constant differences in the chromosome content of the tissue-cells. This difference is revealed most clearly in those forms in which the chromosomes are few in number and differ among themselves in size and shape. In these cases it is seen that the chromosome number is constant and characteristic of the species, being a multiple of two, and that the chromosomes themselves, in the somatic tissues and immature gametes, are present in pairs. Save in the case of birds, moths and butterflies, it is usual to find that in the cells of the female each of the pairs consists of two chromosomes exactly similar in size and shape, whereas in the cells of the male one of the pairs is remarkable in that its members are dissimilar. The chromosomes of this pair are nevertheless represented in the female. They are known as the *sex-chromosomes*, since in respect

¹ I am indebted to Professor F. A. E. Crew for this account.

of them the sexes differ. Both members of this pair in the female, and the one sex-chromosome like them of the equivalent pair in the male, are known as the *X-chromosomes*: the unequal mate of the \bar{X} in the male is known as the *Y-chromosome*.

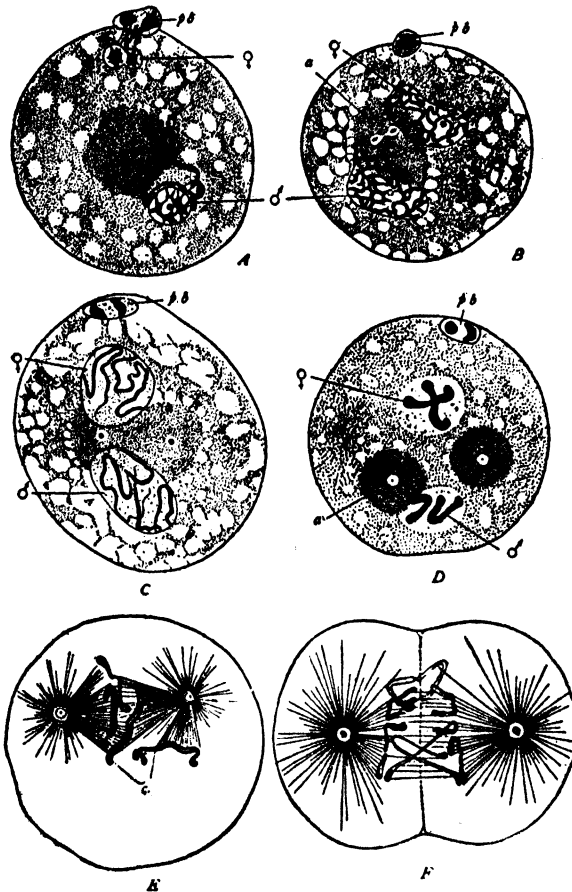


FIG. 30.—FERTILISATION AND FIRST DIVISION OF OVUM OF *ASCARIS MEGALOCEPHALA*. (Slightly modified from Boveri.)

- A, second polar body (pb) just formed; the head of the spermatozoon is becoming changed into a reticular male pro-nucleus (♂), which shows indistinctly two chromosomes; just above it, its archoplasm is shown: the female pro-nucleus (♀) also shows two chromosomes.
 B, both pro-nuclei are now reticular and enlarged; a double centrosome (a) is visible in the archoplasm which lies between them.
 C, the chromatin in each pro-nucleus is now converted into two filamentous chromosomes; the centrosomes are separating from one another.
 D, the chromosomes are more distinct and shortened; the nuclear membranes have disappeared; the centrosomes are distinct.
 E, mingling of the four chromosomes (c), each of which is seen to be splitting longitudinally; the achromatic spindle is fully formed.
 F, separation (towards the poles of the spindle) of the halves of the split chromosomes, and commencing division of the cytoplasm. Each of the daughter cells now has four chromosomes, two of these have been derived from the male pro-nucleus, two from the female pro-nucleus.

The sex-chromosome constitution of the female can thus be symbolised as XX; that of the male as XY. Into each mature gamete, ovum or sperm, there passes one or other member, but not both, of each pair of homologous chromosomes. All

the other, then he will be normal. Daughters will all be normal or carriers. Sex-linked characters are not limited to one sex: they are sex-linked because their factors are resident in the sex-chromosome.

While in man it is the male that is XY and the female that is XX in sex-chromosome constitution, in birds, moths and butterflies it is the male that is XX and the female XY. In many animals there is no Y-chromosome in the male, his sex-chromosome constitution being XO. There are other modifications of this XX:XY relationship, but in all the end result is the same: one sex is monogametic, elaborating but one kind of gamete in respect of the sex-chromosomes; the other is digametic, elaborating two; in all the mechanism yields males and females in every generation. Sex is thus determined at the time of fertilisation by the sex-chromosome distributive mechanism.

FORMATION OF THE TISSUES.

It appears to be established beyond doubt that new cells can only be formed from pre-existing cells. In the early embryo the whole body is an agglomeration of cells. These have all been formed from the *fertilised ovum* or *zygote*, which divides first into two cells, these again into two, and

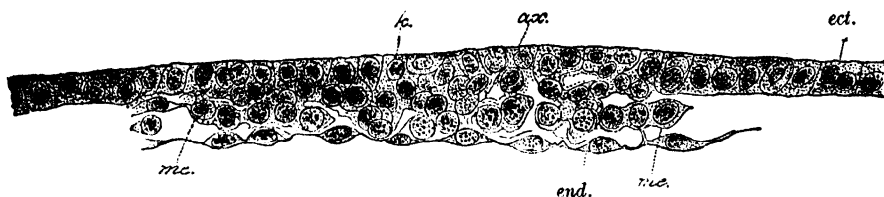


FIG. 32.—SECTION OF BLASTODERM OF RABBIT, SHOWING THE COMMENCING FORMATION OF THE MESODERM. (Kölliker.)

ect., ectoderm; *me.*, mesoderm; *end.*, endoderm; *ax.*, axial part of ectoderm with cells undergoing division (*k.*). The mesoderm is growing from this part.

so on until a large number of embryonic cells are produced. In mammals these form at first an outer stratum of clear cells lying at the surface, and an inner mass of granular cells attached to the outer layer at one part, but elsewhere separated from it by clear fluid. Eventually the cells of the inner mass arrange themselves in the form of a membrane (*blastoderm*), composed of three layers. These layers are known respectively as the *ectoderm*, *mesoderm*, and *endoderm*, or *epiblast*, *mesoblast*, and *hypoblast* (fig. 32). The ectoderm gives rise to most of the epithelial tissues, and to the tissues of the nervous system; the endoderm to the epithelium of the alimentary canal (except the mouth), and the glands in connexion with it; and the mesoderm to the connective and muscular tissues.]

The tissues are formed either by changes which occur in the intercellular substance or by changes in the cells themselves—frequently by both these processes combined. Among the cells which are least altered from their embryonic condition are the white corpuscles of the blood; these are regarded as typical free cells.]

The histogenetic relation between the three layers of the blastoderm and the several tissues and organs of the body is exhibited in the following table:

- Ectoderm** {
- The epithelium of the skin (epidermis) and its appendages, viz., the hairs, nails, sebaceous and sweat glands, and mammary glands. The muscular fibres of the sweat and mammary glands.
 - The epithelium of the mouth, and the epithelium of the anus and anal canal. The salivary and other glands which open into the mouth. The enamel of the teeth. The gustatory organs.
 - The epithelium of the lower part of the urethra.
 - The epithelium of the lower part of the vagina.
 - The epithelium of the nasal passages, and of the cavities and glands which open into them.
 - The epithelium covering the front of the eye. The epithelium of the lacrimal canals and lacrimal glands. The crystalline lens. The retina. The pars ciliaris retinæ and the pars iridica retinæ. The sphincter and dilatator pupillæ muscles.
 - The epithelium lining the membranous labyrinth of the ear. The epithelium lining the external auditory meatus.
 - The epithelium lining the central canal of the spinal cord, the aqueduct, and the fourth, third, and lateral ventricles of the brain.
 - The tissues of the nervous system, including all nerve-cells and nerve-fibres and most neuroglia-cells.
 - The greater part of the pituitary body. The pineal gland. The medulla of the suprarenal glands.
- Mesoderm** {
- All the connective tissues.
 - The blood.
 - The spleen and lymph glands.
 - The cortex of the suprarenal glands.
 - The endothelial lining of the heart, blood-vessels, lymphatics, and serous membranes.
 - The epithelium of the uriniferous tubules, and that of the ureters and renal pelves.
 - The epithelium of the male generative organs, including that of the testis and its ducts, and that of the prostatic vesicle, but probably not the original male germ cells.
 - The epithelium of the ovary and Graafian follicles, but probably not the original female germ cells; the epithelium of the Fallopian tubes, and uterus, and the upper part of the vagina.
 - The muscular tissues, voluntary, involuntary, and cardiac.
- Endoderm** {
- The epithelium of the alimentary canal (from the pharynx to the lower end of the rectum, inclusive) and of all the glands which open into it (including the liver and pancreas).
 - The epithelium of the Eustachian tube and cavity of the tympanum.
 - The epithelium of the larynx, trachea, and bronchi, and of all their ramifications.

Endoderm	{	The epithelium of the pulmonary alveoli.
		The thyroid body and parathyroids. The embryonic rudiment of the thymus gland.
		The epithelium of the urinary bladder, of the female urethra, and of the uppermost part of the vagina.
		The epithelium of the upper part of the male urethra and of its glands.

All the connective tissues, the endothelium of the lymphatic and hæmal systems, and the vascular and lymph glands are formed from a special part of the mesoderm termed *mesenchyme*, which, at an early stage of development, consists of a syncytium of branched cells with a homogeneous intercellular matrix. *Plain muscular tissue* is for the most part also formed from mesenchyme, but in certain situations, as in the sweat glands and muscular tissue of the iris, it is ectodermal in origin. The *generative cells* in both sexes, although developed in connexion with the mesoderm, are produced from special cells which are early differentiated from the somatic cells.

LESSON I.

USE OF THE MICROSCOPE. EXAMINATION OF CERTAIN COMMON OBJECTS.

THE requisites for practical Histology are a good compound microscope; slips of glass technically known as 'slides,' upon which the preparations are made; pieces of thin glass used as covers for the preparations; a few instruments, such as microtome, scalpel, scissors, forceps, and mounted needles; and a set of fluid reagents for mounting and staining microscopic preparations. A sketch-book and pencil are also necessary, and must be constantly employed.

Directions as to the preparation of the fluids and methods used in histological work are given in the Appendix.

For ordinary work there should be at least two objectives in constant use—a low power working at about 16 millimeters ($\frac{3}{4}$ inch) from the object, and a high power having a focal distance of about 4 millimeters ($\frac{1}{4}$ inch); it is useful also to have a lower power (commanding a larger field of view) for finding objects readily, and two or more oculars of different magnification.

The above combinations of objectives and oculars will give a magnifying power of from 40 to 400 diameters, sufficient for most purposes of histology. But to bring out minute points of detail in the structure of cells and of certain tissues examination with much higher magnifying powers may be necessary. Objectives of high power are usually made as immersion-lenses: *i.e.*, they are constructed to form a proper image of the object when the lowermost lens of the system is immersed in a layer of liquid which lies on the cover-glass of the object and has a refractive index not far removed from that of the glass itself. For this purpose an essential oil (oil of cedar-wood) is used. Besides their high magnifying power, the advantages obtained by the employment of these oil-immersion lenses are: increased working distance from the object, increased angle of aperture with sharper definition of the object, and increased amount of light traversing the microscope.

Immediately after use the oil should be gently wiped off the frontal lens of an oil-immersion. A very soft and clean rag should be kept for this purpose. Congealed oil, or mounting media, may be removed from the lens and other objectives by gently wiping them with a rag moistened in xylol.

Measuring.—A scale for measuring objects should be constructed for each microscope. To do this, put a stage-micrometer (which is a glass slide ruled in the middle with lines $\frac{1}{10}$ and $\frac{1}{100}$ millimeter apart) under the microscope in such a manner that the lines run from left to right (the microscope must not be inclined). Focus them exactly. Put a piece of white paper on the

table at the right of the microscope. Look through the instrument with the left eye, keeping the right eye open. The lines of the micrometer will appear projected upon the paper. Mark their apparent distance from one another with pencil upon the paper, and afterwards make a scale of lines in ink, of the same interval apart. A magnified representation is thus obtained of the micrometer scale. Mark upon it the number of the eye-piece and of the objective, and the length of the microscope tube. This scale will serve for the rough measurement of any object without the further use of the micrometer. To measure an object, place the scale upon the table to the right of the microscope and view the object with the left eye, keeping the right eye open. The object appears projected upon the scale, and its size in tenths or hundredths of a millimeter can be read off. It is essential that the same objective and eye-piece should be employed as were used in making the scale, and that the microscope tube should be of the same length, *i.e.*, drawn out to exactly the same extent as when the scale was made.

Use of the iris diaphragm.—This is incorporated with the substage condenser and with oil immersion objectives should be fully opened. With other powers (*e.g.*, the $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{2}{3}$ inch lenses) better definition is attained if the diaphragm be partly closed. A rough and ready guide for the beginner is to remove the eye-piece and look down the tube; then close the diaphragm till the outer third or quarter of the field as thus seen is occupied by the diaphragm.

STUDY OF COMMON OBJECTS.

Before beginning the study of Histology the student should endeavour to familiarise himself with the use of the microscope, and at the same time learn to recognise some of the chief objects which are liable to occur accidentally in microscopic specimens. On this account it has been considered desirable to introduce directions for the examination and recognition of starch-granules, moulds and torulæ, air-bubbles, linen, cotton, and woollen fibres, and the usual constituents of the dust of a room (see fig. 33).

In examining any object the student should always use the low power first: the object can be looked over with this before the cover-glass is applied. Before the high power is used a cover-glass must always be placed on the preparation. To facilitate changing the objectives they are screwed on to a rotating holder which is fixed to the lower end of the microscope tube: to this holder two or more objectives can be attached.

1. Starch-granules. Gently scrape the cut surface of a potato with the point of a knife; shake the starch-granules so obtained into a drop of water upon a clean slide and apply a cover-glass.

With the low power the starch-granules look like dark specks differing considerably in size; under the high power they are clear, flat, ovoid particles (fig. 33, 1), with a sharp outline when exactly focused. Notice the change in appearance of the outline as the microscope is focused up and down. On close examination fine concentric lines are seen in the starch-granules, arranged around a minute spot which is generally placed eccentrically near the smaller end of the granule. Sketch two or three starch-granules.

Pass a drop of dilute iodine solution under the cover-glass, and observe the staining of the starch-granules.

Notice the appearance of air-bubbles (air-bells) in the water (fig. 33, 2). If



FIG. 33.—OBJECTS WHICH MAY BE ACCIDENTALLY PRESENT IN MICROSCOPIC PREPARATIONS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

1, Starch-granules; 2, a small air-bubble and part of a large one; 3, yeast toruli; 4, a mould (*Aspergillus glaucus*); 5, linen fibres; 6, cotton fibres; 7, woolen fibres; 8, hair, human; 9, epithelium-scales; 10, micrococci; 11, bacilli and spores (*B. subtilis*). Magnified about 250 diameters.

comparatively large they are clear in the middle, with a broad dark border due to refraction of the light ; if small they may look entirely dark.

2. Look at yeast which has been grown in solution of sugar. Observe the yeast particles or torulæ, some of them budding (fig. 33, 3). Each torula contains a clear vacuole, and has a well-defined outline, due to a membrane. Sketch two or three torulæ.

3. Examine some mould in water. Notice the long branching filaments (hyphæ), and also the torula-like particles (spores) from which hyphæ may in some instances be seen sprouting (fig. 33, 4). Sketch part of a hypha.

4. Mount fibres of linen and of cotton in water, using a high power. Compare the well-defined, rounded, relatively straight or but slightly twisted linen with the longer, broader but thinner, and more twisted cotton fibres (fig. 33, 5, 6). Sketch one of each kind.

5. Mount one or two hairs from the head in water and look at them first with the low, then with the high power (fig. 33, 8). Examine also fibres from any woollen material and compare them with the hairs. They have the same structure, although the wool is finer and is curled (fig. 33, 7). Draw one of each.

6. Look at a drop of hay infusion, which has been standing a day or two, for bacteria and other putrefactive organisms (fig. 33, 10, 11). The active movements which they exhibit are due to minute cilia or flagella, which can only be made visible by special staining methods and a very high magnifying power. Notice that all very minute particles, organic and inorganic, which occur in fluids may be seen to exhibit the peculiar tremulous dancing movement which is known as 'Brownian' movement.

7. Examine some dust of the room in water with the high power. In addition to clumps of black particles of carbon (soot) there will probably be seen fibres of linen, cotton, or wool, and shed epithelium-scales (fig. 33, 9) derived from the epidermis.

8. Look at a drop of milk with the high power. Notice the particles of cream. Their fatty nature is shown by their high refracting power, and by their staining reactions with certain special reagents, such as osmic acid or Sudan III.

LESSONS II. AND III.

STUDY OF THE HUMAN BLOOD-CORPUSCLES.

1. HAVE ready a clean slide and cover-glass; clean the finger with alcohol and dry it. (The presence of sweat will not allow the making of a good preparation.) Then prick with a clean needle the finger smartly above the nail or on the pulp, and touch with the cover-glass the drop of blood which issues from the prick: place the cover-glass on the slide, blood down, as quickly as possible, so that the blood has time neither to dry nor to coagulate. Examine it at once, first with the low, then with the high power.

Note (a) the red cells, mostly in rouleaux but some lying apart seen flat or in profile; (b) the colourless cells, easily made out if the cover-glass is lightly touched by a needle, on account of their tendency to stick to the glass, whilst the coloured cells are driven past by the currents set up; (c) in the clear spaces, fibrin-filaments and blood-platelets.

Sketch a roll of red corpuscles and one or two colourless corpuscles.

2. Prepare as in § 1, but the drop of blood is to be mixed upon the slide with an equal amount of normal or isotonic saline¹ so that the red corpuscles tend to be less massed together, and their shape better displayed.

Sketch a red cell seen on the flat and another in profile (or optical section). Also a crenated corpuscle.

3. Place a small drop of blood on a slide, and at once invert it over the mouth of a bottle containing formol.² After five minutes, gently wash with saline to remove blood-corpuscles, place a drop of 1 per cent. methyl-violet solution on it for one minute, wash with water, allow to dry, and mount in dammar. The blood-platelets are specially well shown in this preparation.

4. Prepare hæmin (hydrochlorate of hæmatin) by heating a dry smear of blood on a slide with anhydrous glacial acetic acid. It is not necessary to add salt, since this is present in blood, but if a stain of blood, which may have been washed, is to be examined, a small crystal of common salt should be added to scrapings of the stain before heating with the acetic acid, which must always be anhydrous. The crystals of hæmin are permanent.

5. To study the granules of the leucocytes thin blood films are made as follows:

Take up a small drop of blood from the pricked finger by touching it with one end of a slide. Immediately apply this slide, at an angle of from 35° to 45°, to the surface of another slide about half an inch from one end. Push it quickly but

¹ Normal or isotonic saline is the name given to a solution of sodium chloride containing from 7 to 9 grm. to the litre of distilled water for mammals, from 5 to 6 grm. for the frog. Ringer's solution is advantageously used in place of ordinary saline solution. This is made (Locke) by adding to every 100 c.c. of distilled water 0.9 grm. NaCl (0.5 grm. for the frog); 0.024 grm. CaCl₂; 0.042 grm. KCl and 0.1 grm. NaHCO₃. Or 0.5 grm. NaHCO₃ may be substituted for 0.1 grm. and 0.1 grm. MgCl₂ added (Dale).

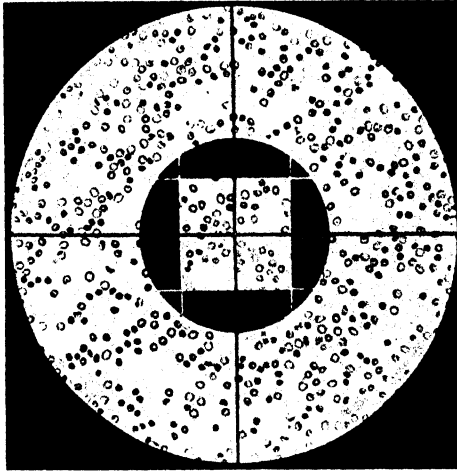
² 'Formol' is the term used to denote a 40 p.c. solution of commercial formaldehyde.

gently and evenly to the other end. The slides to be used must be cleaned in alcohol, and dried with a clean cloth. The slightest trace of grease (*e.g.*, from the fingers) makes it impossible to prepare an even smear.

Dry the film by waving the slide in the air to accelerate evaporation; if water be allowed to evaporate slowly from the blood plasma crenation of the red cells may result.

Then stain in Leishman's stain (see Appendix).

6. Study sections of marrow (from a long bone) which have been stained by Turnbull's Jenner method (see Appendix). Observe the fat-cells, the supporting reticular tissue, the proper marrow-cells (myelocytes), the myeloplaxes and the erythroblasts. [See Appendix for methods of fixation and staining.]



[Courtesy, E. Letts.]

FIG. 34.—PHOTOGRAPH OF A SUSPENSION OF RED CELLS AS SEEN THROUGH THE METZ HÆMACYTOMETER EYE-PIECE.

The large central square (subdivided into four small ones) serves as the unit for counting the red corpuscles. The white cells are counted in the ring limited externally by the eye-piece field, internally by the central ring.

7. Make a film preparation of red marrow by smearing a little upon a cover-glass slide, allowing it to dry quickly. Then stain in Leishman's stain (see Appendix).
8. Enumeration of the blood-corpuscles. This is done by the hæmacytometer.

The principle of this instrument consists in diluting the blood 200 times with a solution which does not hæmolyse the corpuscles and counting their number in a measured portion of the diluted blood.

The most useful type of hæmacytometer is that devised by Metz. In place of the slide being elaborately ruled there is a far simpler ruling in the eye-piece. Calculation is also practically eliminated.

The principle is as follows: Incorporated in the focal plane of the ocular is a large square, divided into four small ones, surrounded by a black circle (see fig. 34). The large square is used for counting the red corpuscles, the slide in which they lie being systematically searched with the aid of a mechanical stage. Outside this central square is a ring, internally bounded by the black circle containing the red cell square; externally, by the edge of the eye-piece field. The white cells are counted in this by a similar displacement of the slide.

The counting chamber (fig. 35) consists of two central glass plates on a thick slide. Thus both red and white corpuscles may be counted in one sitting; or two counts made of the same type of corpuscle as a mutual check. The edges of the chamber are $\frac{1}{10}$ mm. higher than the plates which are covered by a specially plane cover slip. Hence there is a layer of blood of this thickness covering the chamber.

The apparatus is set up as follows: using a $\frac{1}{6}$ -inch objective and the special ocular the large square on the chamber is focused. By altering the tube-length of the microscope this square is made to coincide with that in the ocular. By this single check the tube-length is determined once and for all. The square on the counting chamber is of no significance in the actual counting.

Red corpuscles are usually diluted in:

Hayem's fluid.

Na_2SO_4	5	gram.
NaCl	1	"
HgCl_2	0.5	gram.
Aq. dest.	200.0	c.c.

White corpuscles are generally diluted with 0.5 per cent. acetic acid tinged with gentian violet.

For counting the blood platelets a suitable diluent (Van Herwerden) is a



[Courtesy, E. Leitz.]

FIG. 35.—METZ DOUBLE COUNTING CHAMBER.

The suspensions of red or white blood-corpuscles are added at the edge of the cover-slip above and below the central transverse groove. The cells distribute themselves over the floor of the chamber by capillary attraction.

mixture of 21 parts of 10 per cent. urea solution with 9 of normal saline. The red cells are hæmolyzed and the blood-platelets remain separate.

To use, the blood is sucked up with a pipette of the Thoma type (fig. 36). For red corpuscles it is filled exactly to the 1.0 mark. The pipette is then filled with Hayem's solution to the 101 mark, thus filling the mixing chamber, in which the corpuscles are evenly distributed by rapidly rolling the pipette with the included glass ball between the fingers. The blood is hence diluted 100 times. The clear fluid in the capillary part of the pipette is expelled, a drop of the mixture rapidly added to the edge of the cover-glass, under which it is promptly drawn by capillary attraction. After a moment the corpuscles settle down and may be counted. For results of any accuracy at least 500 cells should be counted, and the counting chamber re-filled (after cleaning) once if not twice. The average number of cells per field having been estimated it is only necessary to multiply that number by 100,000 to get the actual count.

For white corpuscles a different pipette is used, giving a dilution of only

1 in 10. The blood is sucked up to the 1·0 mark and the acetic acid-gentian violet mixture drawn up to the 11 mark. The acid destroys the red corpuscles, leaving the white cells with their nuclei lightly stained. The remaining operations are as for the red corpuscles; the average number of cells per field, however, being multiplied by 1000.

Points to be borne in mind are :

- (i) The finger or ear must be deeply pricked : the blood should flow freely, as pressure only serves to dilute it with lymph. The first drop should be discarded.
- (ii) The time between the end of mixing in the pipette and the expulsion of the drop on to the counting chamber must be as short as possible. This because the corpuscles are rapidly sedimenting in the pipette while it is not being rolled or shaken.
- (iii) Pipettes, slide and cover-slip should be cleaned immediately after use. A sequence of distilled water, alcohol and acetone is efficacious. The pipettes are best cleaned and dried by sucking the above substances through with a water aspirator.
- (iv) When there is an increase markedly above the normal in the white cells, it is better to fill the pipette with blood only to the 0·5 mark. It must then be remembered that, the dilution being now 1 in 20, the average number of corpuscles per field must be multiplied by 2000.

THE BLOOD-CORPUSCLES.

The blood contains (1) a large number of non-nucleated **coloured corpuscles** having the shape of biconcave disks (**red cells** or **erythrocytes**), (2) a much smaller number of nucleated **colourless corpuscles** (**white cells** or **leucocytes**), mostly spherical, and (3) a variable number of minute colourless discoid particles, known as **blood-platelets (thrombocytes)**. All these float in a liquid (**plasma**). When examined between slide and coverslip the red cells are seen for the most part to be in contact with one another like rolls of coins (**rouleaux**) and the rouleaux themselves form a loose network with clear spaces between occupied by plasma. The latter fluid, shortly after the blood is drawn, deposits fine filaments of fibrin which interlace with one another and entangle the corpuscles in their meshes.

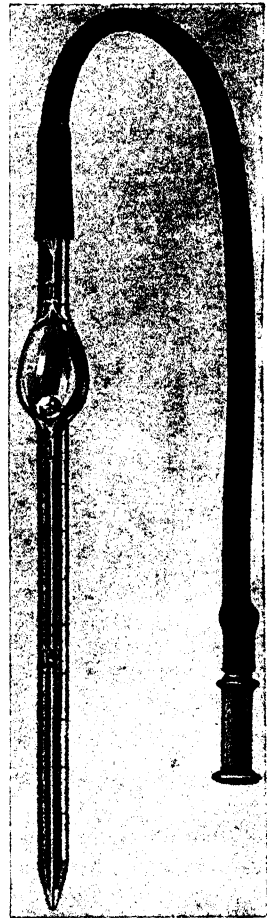


FIG. 36.—PIPETTE USED FOR COUNTING RED CELLS WITH THE HÆMACYTOMETER.

The relative volume of red corpuscles to plasma in human blood, as determined by the hæmatocrit, is as 48 to 52 in the male adult and 43·3 to 56·7 in the female (Hédon).

RED CELLS (ERYTHROCYTES).

The red cell of human and mammalian blood is a fluid droplet consisting of a solution of hæmoglobin with various electrolytes, the droplet being enclosed by a delicate, colourless and highly elastic envelope. The electrolytes include Na, K, Mg, Ca, Cl, and P : of these Ca is in very small amount as compared with that of plasma. The hæmoglobin, to which the red cells owe their colour, is a compound of globin, a protein body containing sulphur, with hæmatin ($C_{34}H_{34}N_4O_5Fe$) ; it owes its chief function, that of a carrier

FIG. 37.—HUMAN RED BLOOD-CELLS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 650$. Photograph.

of oxygen, to the iron in the hæmatin molecule. The envelope of the erythrocyte has a composition like that of cell-protoplasm in general, consisting of protein and lipoids (phosphatides and cholesterol). There is some reason to believe that the lipoids and proteins are accumulated at the outer surface of the envelope. Normal blood of the adult contains about 14 grm. of hæmoglobin in 100 c.c.

Hæmoglobin can be obtained in a crystalline form. The crystals are rhombic prisms in man and most mammals, but in the guinea-pig they are tetrahedra and in the squirrel hexagonal plates. In some animals, *e.g.*, the rat, they are easily obtained after extraction from the corpuscles by water or if blood is shaken up with chloroform or ether ; in other animals and man they are more difficult to obtain. Hæmoglobin rarely crystallises within the corpuscles ; the salts they contain appear to keep it in solution (Adrian).

Minute dark brown rhombic crystals are formed when hæmoglobin is heated with anhydrous acetic acid in presence of a chloride. The crystals are a combination of hæmatin with hydrochloric acid and are known as *hæmin* (Teichmann). Their formation constitutes a delicate test for blood.

Other brownish-yellow crystals are often found within phagocytic cells at the site of old blood extravasations (bruises, etc.) and in other places where red cells are undergoing disintegration within the tissues. The substance of which the crystals are formed is termed *hæmatoidin*. In chemical composition it is allied to the colouring matter of bile (bilirubin), which is also a derivative of hæmoglobin.

Hæmoglobin is, in the blood of vertebrates, confined to the red cells. It is also found in the blood of certain worms and other invertebrates, not always within cells, but frequently in solution in the plasma. In some invertebrates, *e.g.*, molluscs, cephalopods, crustacea, and arachnids, it is replaced by *hæmocyanin*, a compound protein containing copper in place of iron. Hæmocyanin is never contained in corpuscles but, in those animals in which it occurs, is dissolved in the plasma, to which it gives a bluish colour when in contact with free oxygen, becoming almost colourless when deprived of oxygen.

When seen singly the coloured corpuscles are not distinctly red, but appear of a reddish-yellow tinge. They are biconcave circular disks in the blood of man and all other mammals, except the camel family where they are biconcave elliptical disks. The central part of the human erythrocyte usually has a lightly shaded aspect under a moderately high power; this is due to its biconcave shape, not to the presence of a nucleus. The red cells adopt rouleaux formation only when the blood is at rest; if it is disturbed they readily separate, again forming rouleaux as it comes to rest.



FIG. 38.—CRYSTALS OF HÆMOGLOBIN, MAGNIFIED.

1, from human blood; 2, from the guinea-pig; 3, squirrel; 4, hamster.



FIG. 39.—HÆMATOIDIN CRYSTALS. (Frey.)



FIG. 40.—HÆMIN CRYSTALS, MAGNIFIED. (Preyer.)

If the osmotic pressure of the plasma is increased in any way, as by evaporation, or by the addition of a hypertonic solution, many of the red corpuscles become shrunken and irregular in shape (crenated) by the passage

of water out of the corpuscle. On the other hand, a diminution in the density of the plasma, such as is caused by water or the addition of a hypotonic solution, tends to cause the red corpuscles to become first cup-shaped and then globular. It is, however, erroneous to describe either of these as normal forms, although a certain number of cup-shaped corpuscles may occur even in the circulating blood when examined in transparent parts of animals. But by far the larger number are biconcave.

The average diameter of the human red blood-corpuscle is usually stated to be 7·5 microns, such measurements having been usually made from dry preparations (blood-films). But Ponder, Millar, and Dryerre have shown that this figure is too small. These observers measured the corpuscles, floating in natural plasma, in photographs taken immediately after withdrawal. Precautions were employed against deformation caused by changes in the plasma, or by exposure to air or to gaseous mixtures other than those in equilibrium with the gases of the blood. They found the average diameter of the human red corpuscles to be 8·8 microns, and the variations in healthy subjects to be from 6 to 9 microns.¹ The thickness where greatest is about one-fourth of this. In infants up to one month old the red cells are larger than in the adult, but by two months they have assumed the normal size and retain this throughout life.

The following gives in microns the diameter of the red cells of some common mammals (Gulliver):—dog, 7·3; rabbit, 6·5; cow, 6·1; cat, 6·0; horse, 5·7; sheep, 5·0; goat, 3·7. Although of all mammals they are largest in the elephant, viz., 9 μ , their size bears no proportion to the size of the animal. These figures are probably all low, having been obtained from dry preparations.

That the contents of the red blood-corpuscle are fluid is highly probable from the way in which the corpuscle undergoes distortion when turning a corner in its passage along capillaries. Its immediate recovery of shape is also strong evidence for the fluidity of its contents.

In man there are normally about 5,000,000 red cells in each cubic millimeter of blood in the male adult, and somewhat fewer (about 4,500,000) in the female. There would be therefore at least twenty-five million million in the total quantity of blood ($5\frac{1}{2}$ litres) of an average person.

The number in the circulating blood is increased at high altitudes, where the number may be as high as 8,000,000 per c.mm. This is in part due to contraction of the spleen which, as Barcroft has shown, acts as a reservoir for blood-cells, the contraction being caused by diminution in the supply of oxygen. Later, there ensues an increased formation of blood-corpuscles in bone-marrow.

The same effect (increase in number of corpuscles) is produced by breathing rarefied air, while the opposite result is obtained in animals kept in air of greater density than that of the atmosphere (Argyle Campbell).

The volume of each erythrocyte is estimated by Ponder as about 110 cubic microns. It is to be noted that the biconcave discoid shape of the erythrocyte affords a greater surface and a better opportunity for gaseous exchanges between corpuscles and plasma than would be afforded by a sphere of the same volume. Welcker estimated the surface area of each red cell as 128 square microns. Taking

¹ The micron—designated by the Greek letter μ —is the standard unit of measurement in Histology. $1 \mu = \frac{1}{1000}$ mm. = $\frac{1}{25400}$ inch.

this as approximately correct we arrive at the estimation of at least 3000 square metres of aggregate superficial area for the total number of red cells in the whole blood.

The duration of life of the red cell, judged by the amount of bilirubin formed and excreted, has been estimated at about fifteen days. But from experiments in which blood was transfused from one individual into another belonging to a different but compatible group (see p. 63) the foreign corpuscles have been detected after a much longer period (four to eight weeks).

Reticulocytes.—Besides the ordinary red cells there are present, even in normal blood, a certain number of erythrocytes characterised by a finely granular or reticular appearance when treated with certain 'vital' stains,

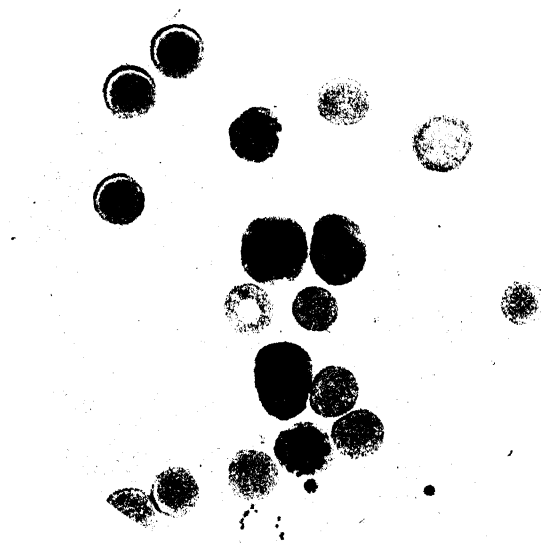


FIG. 41.—RETICULOCYTES IN HUMAN BLOOD. (Davidson and McCrie.) $\times 1000$.

The sample of blood was taken two days after a severe hæmorrhage; it was stained with cresyl blue.

especially cresyl blue. Such cells have been termed 'reticulocytes.' They constitute about 0·3 per cent. of the total number of erythrocytes in the adult (Davidson and McCrie). The cells in question are more numerous in the foetus and infant, attaining close on 50 per cent. of the ordinary red blood-corpuscles in the new-born child. The reticulocyte count is also increased in individuals in which, from hæmorrhage or other cause, there is reason to believe that blood-corpuscles are being produced more actively than usual. After severe hæmorrhage in man (fig. 41) the proportion may rise to 35 per cent.]

The reticular appearance is not confined to the discoid red cells, but is also seen in the nucleated red corpuscles of the marrow: it is generally considered to be characteristic of immature red cells. The name *reticulocytes* was given to the cells in question by Krumbhaar (1922), but cells of this description appear to have been observed by Ehrlich as long ago as 1881.

The attention of pathologists has lately been centred upon these cells as indicative of stimulation of the blood-forming tissues.

In certain conditions—generally pathological—nucleated reticulated erythroblasts (i.e., immature red cells) are found in blood, as well as many discoid reticulocytes. They are said to appear in rabbit's blood after repeated injections of splenic extract (Eddy and Downs, 1923). What causes the reticular markings in the developing red cell is not known. It has been suggested that the material taking that form is derived from the nucleus which is undergoing degenerative changes prior to removal, but there are various reasons against this. According to some authorities the appearance is an artefact, due to precipitation by the dye used of a substance in the immature cell which disappears as the cell matures. It is alleged that similar appearances can be produced in all erythrocytes if subjected to suitable preliminary treatment (W. E. Cooke). But it seems more probable that the reticular substance is derived from the basophil material present in the cell at an earlier stage of development.

WHITE CELLS OR LEUCOCYTES.

These are nucleated amoeboid cells and are destitute of colour. Hence they are known, in contradistinction to the coloured red cells, as the colourless or white blood-cells. In human blood they are far fewer than the coloured, usually not numbering more than from 7000 to 8000 in a cubic millimeter of blood with the subject at rest—about 1 to every 600 red corpuscles—but the proportion of white to red cells is much higher than this in infants and young children.

The white cell count is lowest at rest, exhibiting, however, a daily increase in the afternoon. This variation is largely independent of food and sleep. Exercise produces a marked increase in the number of white cells in the peripheral circulation, as many as 27,000 per c.mm. having been recorded in the case of a Marathon runner. The cells involved are largely the polymorphs (see page 42) and the count usually drops half an hour after the cessation of exercise. Increase in the lymphocytes is generally associated with an increased lymph flow. Starvation causes a diminution of the white cells; pregnancy a slight increase, while in labour a marked increase, averaging 17,000 per c.mm., is said to occur.

Rapid rises in the count would seem to be due to liberation of the cells from the liver, lungs and spleen under the influence of the accelerated blood flow through these organs.

Permanent increase or decrease in the number of white cells is usually pathological. An increase of the white cells is known as a *leucocytosis*, a diminution as a *leucopenia*.

The specific gravity of the white cells is less than that of the red. If examined immediately the blood is drawn, they are spherical in shape, but soon become flattened and then irregular, owing to the amoeba-like changes to which they are subject. Most are phagocytic, the protoplasm tending to take in foreign particles with which the cells come in contact. Some white cells contain fine and others coarse granules in their protoplasm; others again have a hyaline protoplasm without any apparent granules. They are usually examined in stained blood-films (fig. 42 and accompanying plate).

In size the smaller white cells are about the diameter of a red cell, but most are larger. It should, however, be realised that the shape of the white cell in the living state is as variable as that of an amoeba, and that its size in blood-films is influenced by the extent to which it is spread out on the slide. Hence in different blood-films white cells of the same kind may seem to vary in size more than they actually do. The best criterion is their relative size immediately the blood is drawn, when they are all spherical.

The white cells of the blood have each a single nucleus which, in outline, may be either evenly circular or oval, indented at one side, or definitely kidney-shaped; or it may be composed of a variable number of lobes, which are united to one another by threads or bridges of nuclear substance, the nucleus being apparently multiple. Each leucocyte has at least one centriole. The centriole is always near the nucleus; generally opposite an indentation in it.

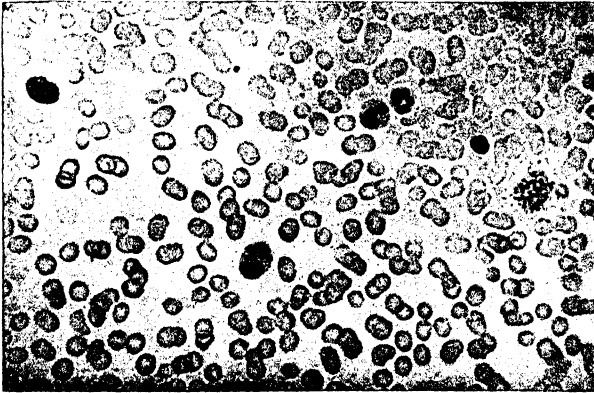


FIG. 42.—BLOOD-FILM STAINED WITH HÆMATOXYLIN AND EOSIN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 400. Photograph.

There are seen in the field, besides numerous red corpuscles, five leucocytes and a mass of blood platelets (on the right), as well as a few scattered platelets. Of the leucocytes, that on the left is a monocyte, that on the right a lymphocyte, and the rest polymorphs.

Blood-leucocytes never exhibit mitoses in the adult state. Those types which multiply at all in the blood apparently do so by amitosis (fig. 21). Like all other cells the white cells possess mitochondria. These vary in form, number, and arrangement in the different kinds of leucocyte. A Golgi apparatus can also be demonstrated, after appropriate fixation, in most leucocytes.

Classification.—Leucocytes were classified by Ehrlich [according to the character and appearance of the nucleus and cytoplasm and the nature and staining qualities of the granules in the latter.] Some of the granules are readily stained by basic dyes such as methylene blue; such granules are termed *basiphil*. Distinct coarse basiphil granules are, however, rare in normal blood, although cells with these granules are always present in the marrow and in some connective tissues, and make their appearance in the blood in some types of leucemia. On the other hand, some granules readily take up colour from acid dyes, such as eosin; these are termed *oxyphil*,

acidophil or *eosinophil*. Others are stained impartially by basic and acid dyes: these are termed *amphophil* or *neutrophil*.¹

On this basis of their staining reactions the leucocytes of human blood can be arranged, as first shown by Ehrlich, in five main groups as follows:

1. Polymorphs ('polymorphonuclear' and 'polynuclear' leucocytes of authors). These constitute from 65 to 70 per cent. of the total leucocyte number.

2. Lymphocytes. These form from 20 to 25 per cent. of the total leucocyte number.

3. Oxyphils or eosinophils. These embrace from 2 to 4 per cent. of the total leucocyte number.

4. Monocytes:

(a) Large monocytes ('mononuclears' and 'macrophages' of authors). These form from 2 to 4 per cent. of the total leucocyte number.

(b) Medium-sized monocytes ('transitional' leucocytes of authors). These constitute from 0.5 to 1 per cent. of the total leucocyte number.

5. Basiphils ('Mastzellen' of German authors). These form less than 0.5 per cent. of the total leucocyte number.

We must now consider in turn the leucocytes belonging to each of these groups.

1. **Polymorphs.**—The polymorph leucocyte, when spherical, is rather larger in diameter than a red blood-corpuscle. Its cytoplasm contains a number of moderately fine 'neutrophil' granules staining reddish-purple with Leishman's stain. Enzymes may also be demonstrated in the cytoplasm of the polymorph by oxidase and peroxidase reactions when they appear as stained granules. The latter, however, do not appear to be the same as the neutrophil granules just referred to. Enzymes are also found in the eosinophil and basiphil cells.

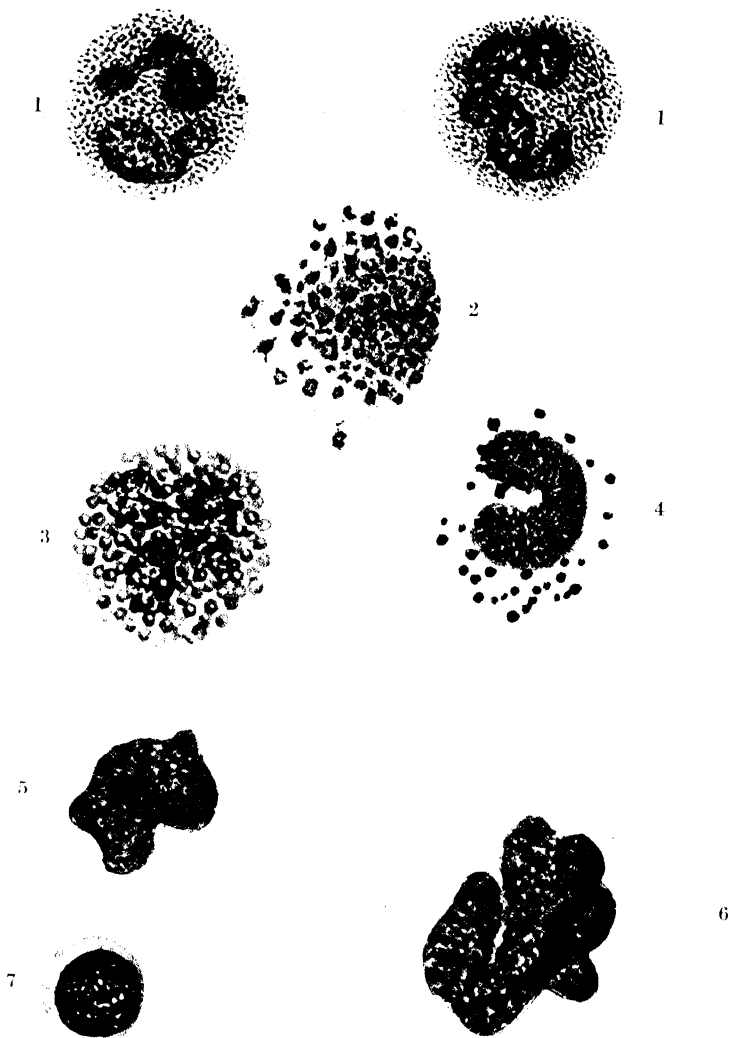
The nucleus may be almost simple, *i.e.*, may be composed of only a single lobe (this, however, is always elongated with a distinct bend or kink), or it may consist of from two to five interconnected lobes (fig. 43).

Arneth count.—Arneth pointed out that the degree of lobulation of the nucleus is of clinical interest. He divided the polymorphs into five groups as follows:—Group I containing those forms in which the nucleus is simple or uni-lobed, Group II bi-lobed, and so on to Group V in which, in man, there is the maximum number of five lobes. The average percentage number of each group in normal blood is, according to W. E. Cooke,

I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
12	25	46	15	2

In several diseases these percentage numbers undergo characteristic variations. Alterations can also be produced experimentally: *e.g.*, as the result of hæmorrhage, of changes of diet, exposure to X-rays, to ultra-violet rays, and so on. But the

¹ It must be understood that, although the term 'granules' is in common use for the cell-inclusions in question, it does not necessarily mean that they are solid; indeed there is reason to think that many are of a fluid nature.



LEUCOCYTES AND PLATELETS, FROM FILM PREPARATION OF HUMAN BLOOD,
STAINED WITH METHYLENE BLUE AND EOSIN BY LEISHMAN'S METHOD.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 2000$. From photographs.

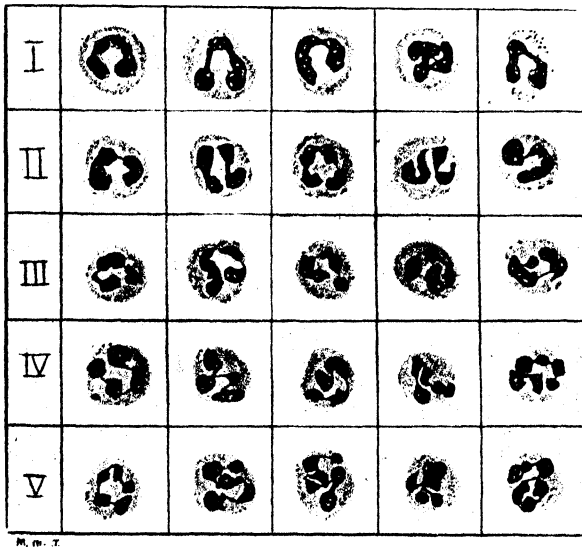
1, 1, polymorph leucocytes; 2, clump of platelets, some of them partly detached; 3, oxyphil (eosinophil) leucocyte; 4, basophil leucocyte (mast-cell): the cell depicted has relatively few granules; 5, small monocyte; 6, large monocyte; 7, lymphocyte.

An erythrocyte is also represented at the same magnification, but the relative size of the leucocytes cannot be judged from a film preparation, since they are flattened during the making of the film.

most effective agent in causing variations in the Arneth count is thyroid administration.

It has long been known that a leucocytosis can be induced (*e.g.*, in rabbits) by the injection of thyroid extract subcutaneously. Ponder has shown that accompanying this there is a deflection of the count towards the left, *i.e.*, towards polymorphs with the more simple nuclei. This rise (which is absolute as well as relative in the number of cells in Group I) is followed by a fall. Concomitantly with this fall in Group I a rise is now observed in Group II. Successive rises and falls pass right along the groups to Group V. Then the numbers of cells in the several groups again become normal.

On this and other evidence Ponder shows that the older cells are those with multi-lobed nuclei. It is interesting to note in connexion with the above that the polymorphs in new-born babies have only a single lobe. It takes two to three weeks



Scale _____ 10 μ

FIG. 43.—DIAGRAM ILLUSTRATING THE APPEARANCE OF POLYMORPH LEUCOCYTES IN THE SEVERAL ARNETH GROUPS. (W. E. Cooke.)

for a cell belonging originally to Group I to become a cell of Group V and then to disappear. If the count is displaced towards the left, there is going on regeneration of polymorphs and activity in bone-marrow, where they are formed; if deviated towards the right, polymorphs are disappearing more rapidly than they are being replaced. It is probable that the life of a polymorph leucocyte does not exceed about four weeks (Ponder and Scott).

Functions of the Polymorph.—This cell is especially active in the phagocytosis of most types of bacteria. It can also produce enzymes capable, under certain conditions, of liquifying and absorbing injured or dead cells and tissues. Finally, there is evidence from tissue-cultures that extracts of leucocytes have a stimulating effect on growth; it is thus possible that the tendency of damaged tissues to repair themselves may in some measure be stimulated by the liberation by white cells of growth-promoting substances, or *trephones* as Carrel calls them.

2. Lymphocytes.—The majority of lymphocytes are about the diameter of a red cell; some are larger. Almost certainly the small are older forms of the large.

The structure and staining are characteristic. The nucleus is round or oval, sometimes indented. In fixed preparations it is markedly reticular. The cytoplasm is small in amount and is hyaline, showing no distinct granules; it is, however, as a whole basiphil, staining blue with Leishman. Oxidase and peroxidase granules are either scanty or lacking.

The mobility of the lymphocyte is usually less than that of the polymorph; its phagocytic power is slight or nil.

Functions of the lymphocyte.—This cell is very prone to pass through the walls of vessels¹ and wander through the tissues. Indeed, the presence of lymphocytes in extra-vascular positions is in many tissues normal. This is in contrast with the polymorph. Lymphocytes in large numbers also pass through the lining of the alimentary canal—particularly during digestion.

Although these cells number from a fifth to a quarter of the circulating white cells very little is known as to their rôle. The formation by them of lipolytic ferments, detoxifying substances, and, by their breaking down, of purines to assist in the formation of nucleoproteins are only some of the functions attributed to these enigmatic elements of the blood, lymph and tissues.

3. Eosinophils.—The oxyphil leucocyte ('acidophil' of some authors) is, in size, equal to, or rather larger than, the polymorph. The nucleus is kidney-shaped, bi-lobed or tri-lobed. Characteristic of this cell are the numerous large spherical granules in its cytoplasm; these stain intensely with acid dyes, such as eosin. In the eosinophils of horse's blood the granules are very large and of an oval shape. Scanty mitochondria are also present.

Functions.—Here as with the lymphocyte very little is positively known except that though motile the eosinophils are only very rarely phagocytic whether for micro-organisms, injured tissues or foreign particles. A curious fact is the marked increase in the blood-stream in cases of infection with parasitic worms in general and with nematodes in particular.² It has, therefore, been suggested that these cells play a detoxifying rôle.

The large refractile granules of the cytoplasm contain iron and on this it has been suggested that the eosinophils are concerned in the phagocytosis of haemoglobin. But for this there is little evidence.

4. Monocytes.

(a) The large mononuclear leucocyte is the largest of the white cells, often measuring from 15 μ to 20 μ in diameter. The nucleus is round or oval. The cytoplasm is in relatively large amount; it remains uncoloured by stains or is feebly basiphil. It does not contain characteristic granules, although it may occasionally show a few oxyphil particles.

In behaviour the large uninuclear is not only one of the most mobile but

¹ This property is known as *diapedesis*.

² I have in my collection a blood film taken from a miner suffering from ankylostomiasis (hook-worm disease). In a differential white-cell count the eosinophils form 66.2 per cent. of the total number of leucocytes. (H.M.C.)

also the most phagocytic of the white cells, especially towards foreign bodies and parasitic organisms.

(b) The transitional monocyte is not very unlike the polymorph but distinctly larger. Its nucleus is kidney-shaped or incompletely bi-lobed, and stains less intensely than that of the polymorph. The cytoplasm varies from showing indifference to staining to being slightly basiphil. A few neutrophil granules, staining like those of the polymorph, are sometimes seen in the cytoplasm. It was originally regarded as transitional between the large monocyte and the polymorph, but even the morphological differences between it and the polymorph are considerable, viz., (1) its nucleus, nearly always lobed in the polymorph, is merely indented or kidney-shaped here, and is stained with basic dyes less intensely than that of the polymorph; (2) the amount of cytoplasm in the transitional is relatively greater than in the polymorph. On the other hand the transitional shows many points of resemblance to the large uninuclear leucocyte, having similar characters and staining reactions. And in those pathological conditions which cause the true mononuclears to increase or decrease in number the transitionals behave correspondingly. The grouping of both under the heading of monocyte or macrocyte is therefore justified.

Functions.—These are discussed in the section on the reticulo-endothelial system (p. 57), since from this are to be derived the majority of the monocytes of the blood-stream. It will suffice to say here that these cells are highly motile, pass in large numbers from the vessels into the tissues and engulf bacteria far less freely than the polymorph. They possess, however, marked phagocytic powers for many protozoa and also for particulate matter injected into the blood or other tissues.

5. **Basiphils.**—The basiphil leucocyte is somewhat larger than the polymorph. The nucleus is usually bi-lobed, sometimes kidney-shaped. Characteristic are the large basiphil granules staining a deep purple with Leishman and dark blue with methylene blue and eosin. When numerous they obscure the nucleus. Apart from the basiphil staining of the granules this leucocyte is in general appearance somewhat like the oxyphil.

Functions.—The basiphil is only feebly motile and not phagocytic. It has been suggested, on the grounds that senile eosinophils sometimes contain basiphil granules, that typical basiphils are merely a further stage in the degeneration of the oxyphil leucocytes. There is, however, little evidence for this and one is forced to the conclusion that our knowledge of the why and the wherefore of these cells is virtually nil.

BLOOD-PLATELETS.

In a fresh preparation of blood a network of fine intercrossing filaments of fibrin soon makes its appearance. This fibrin network is well seen in sections of clotted plasma (fig. 44). The filaments generally radiate from minute round colourless discoid or spindle-shaped particles less than one-third the diameter of a red corpuscle, which either lie separately or are collected into clumps or masses of variable, some-

times of considerable, size. These particles are the *blood-platelets*, or *thrombocytes* which were first described as constant constituents of the blood by

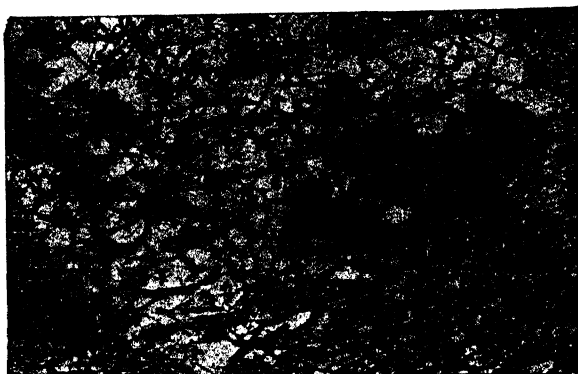


FIG. 44.—NETWORK OF FIBRIN-FILAMENTS FROM A SECTION OF BLOOD-CLOT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 400$. Photograph.

Bizzozero (1882) although they had been observed previously. Most of the platelets measure not more than 2μ , but a few are rather larger than this. In the

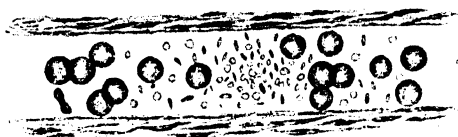


FIG. 45.—BLOOD-CORPUSCLES AND BLOOD-PLATELETS, WITHIN A SMALL VEIN OF YOUNG RAT. (W. Osler.)

blood-vessels they are discrete (fig. 45), but they immediately clump together when blood is drawn and is allowed to coagulate. If, however, the blood is examined under certain conditions which hinder coagulation, the platelets can be kept

separate. In these circumstances they may be stained and submitted to high powers of the microscope. The result of such examination shows that each contains minute granules staining rather more deeply than the rest of the platelet (figs. 46, 47). These particles have been considered to represent nuclei, and the platelets have on this ground been regarded as cells. The granules are probably mitochondrial in nature; the view that they are nuclear in origin is incorrect since the Feulgen reaction, which is specific for chromatin, cannot be elicited.

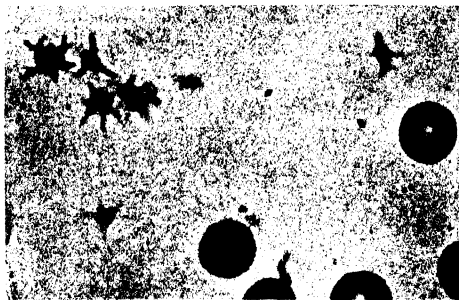


FIG. 46.—HUMAN BLOOD-PLATELETS FIXED WITH FORMOL AND STAINED WITH IRON-HAEMATOXYLIN. (Van Herwerden.) $\times 1000$.

Two or three red cells are included in the photograph and serve to show the relative size.

Blood-platelets vary greatly in number. They are counted after dilution of blood with fluids which prevent clumping. Flössner states that they average in man 760,000, in woman 682,000, in each cubic millimeter of blood. This number

is however unusually high; others have obtained a smaller figure (200,000 to 400,000 in both sexes). In any case, the number varies very greatly even in normal individuals. They are said to be much increased in number in anaphylaxis (Pardi).

Cramer states that the number of platelets is diminished if the diet is deficient in fat-soluble vitamin A and increased under the influence of light, especially ultra-violet. He suggests that the platelets assist in the mechanism of resistance to bacterial infection. (This may be so, but their chief function is probably in connexion with blood-coagulation: hence the name *thrombocytes*. The tendency of plasma to coagulate depends on the number of thrombocytes it contains. Hydrocele fluid, which resembles plasma in its general composition but contains no thrombocytes, does not coagulate spontaneously.

If the platelets come in contact with any foreign or injured surface they adhere to this and to one another and undergo a disintegrative change, shooting out clear globules in all directions, accompanied by the formation of filaments of fibrin, which fix themselves to adjacent structures (Tait and Burke).

In subjects of hæmophilia the blood-platelets undergo disintegration much more slowly than in the normal subject (Howell and Cekada).

The spreading out upon glass or other foreign surfaces is not analogous to the amœboid movement of the leucocyte, for it is irreversible (Tait, 1918), being a pronounced example of *thigmotaxis* (tendency to adhere to solid substances). If solids in suspension, such as Indian ink particles, are injected into the blood, they adhere at first to the blood-platelets—subsequently such particles are taken up by phagocytic cells of the reticulo-endothelial system (see p. 57).

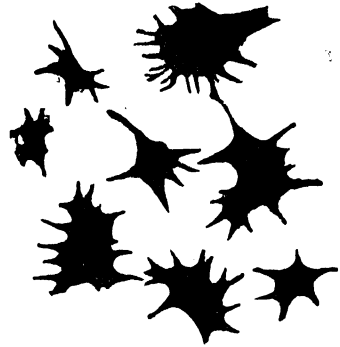


FIG. 47.—BLOOD-PLATELETS, HIGHLY MAGNIFIED, SHOWING THE IRREGULAR FORMS WHICH THEY ASSUME WHEN BROUGHT IN CONTACT WITH FOREIGN MATTER. (After Kopsch.)

HÆMOCONIÆ.

Besides blood-platelets various other minute particles (often known as chylomicrons) have been described in the plasma. They are most evident when it is examined by dark ground illumination. The majority of the particles thus brought to view are fatty and have been derived from the chyle; they are therefore only abundant during digestion of a meal containing fat.

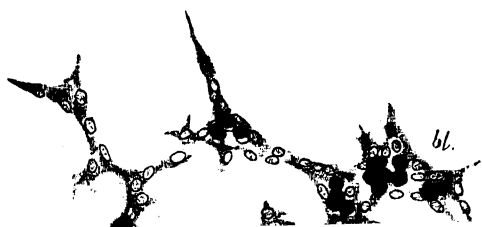
In fasting the fat of the body becomes mobilised and these fatty particles appear in plasma; they begin to show themselves on the second day and increase up to the fifth day (Gage and Fish).

FORMATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF BLOOD-CELLS: HÆMOPOIESIS.

This is a subject which until recently was as complex as it was confused. While still complex much of the confusion has been reduced, largely owing to Sabin and her associates Cunningham and Doan.

(1) **Polyphyletic theory.**—Ehrlich regarded the main groups of blood-cells as being formed from specifically distinct stem-cells. Thus, the granular

leucocytes were held to be formed from a special precursory cell in the bone-marrow ; the lymphocytes from a stem-cell in lymphoid tissue and the red



A fluid (the primitive blood-plasma) is found in these at first syncytial masses, which, as they become hollowed out, interconnect with each other. Their outer cells form the vascular endothelium: and from it the primitive red blood-corpuscles are budded off. While still nucleated, they commence to acquire hæmoglobin. In the later stages of foetal development the proportion of nucleated to non-nucleated corpuscles decreases, while at birth the vast majority of the corpuscles are devoid of nuclei. Various stages in the formation of the red blood-corpuscles have been described by Sabin and others; the penultimate stage is usually known as the *normoblast* and is characterised by a pycnotic nucleus. This is the precursor of the non-nucleated red blood-corpuscles.

As foetal development proceeds red cell formation becomes segregated to certain organs. The *liver* is the chief red cell factory from about the third month till close on birth. The process continues to be essentially the same: red blood-corpuscles are formed by fission of vascular endothelium between the hepatic cells.

Next, the *spleen* takes on this activity in the latter half of foetal life.

Finally, the *bone-marrow* usurps the red cell-forming functions of the spleen and liver, producing from birth onwards all the red blood-corpuscles.

(b) **After birth.**—As just stated, red cell formation is exclusively relegated to the bone-marrow. This tissue contains varying amounts of fat; when there is much of this the marrow is yellow; when present in relatively small amounts, it is red. It is in the latter that blood formation is the most active.

Now, recent research (Sabin, Doan, Cunningham) has shown that the system of blood-sinuses of the marrow is a closed one. There is no direct communication, as used to be thought, between these vessels and the surrounding tissue. Furthermore, a large number of these blood-sinuses are, at a given moment, collapsed. It is in these intersinusoidal capillaries of Sabin that red cell formation occurs (see fig. 52). Plasma then filters in from adjacent capillaries, and the recently formed red blood-corpuscles are thus swept into the circulation. The opening up of the collapsed capillaries does not occur until the normoblasts have lost their nuclei. It is known, however, that if red cell formation be markedly stimulated (*e.g.*, by hæmorrhage) these cells may be found in the peripheral circulation. As to how this occurs is not certain—probably, as Sabin suggests, the endothelium of patent sinuses becomes erythropoietic.

DEVELOPMENT OF WHITE BLOOD-CORPUSCLES: LEUCOPOIESIS.

As already mentioned, the chief differences in origin of these cells (as opposed to the red blood-corpuscles) are: (i) Their *extra*-vascular origin, with the exception, as already mentioned, of the clasmatocyte; (ii) their derivation from a stem-cell (the reticular cell of Sabin) common to *all* the blood-leucocytes but quite distinct (except in a common mesodermal origin) from the endothelial precursor of the red blood-corpuscles; (iii) the leucocytes (again in contrast with the red blood-corpuscles) migrate by amœboid movement into the blood-sinuses of the bone-marrow.

The reticular cell¹ according to Sabin is a fixed mesenchymal cell found in the bone-marrow, spleen and lymph glands ; in type it is undifferentiated

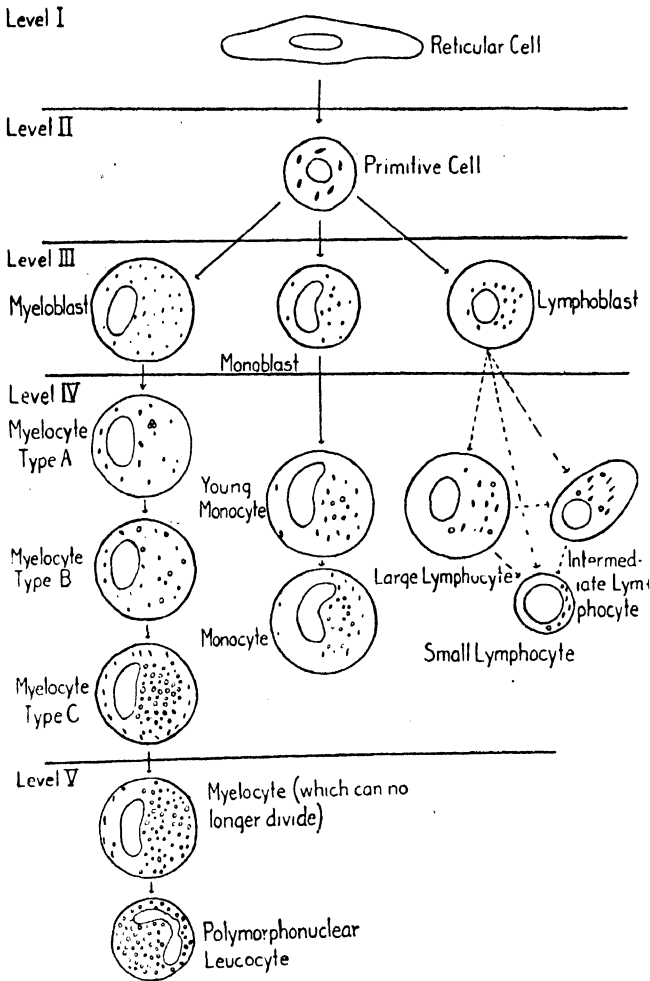


FIG. 51.—DIAGRAM OF ORIGIN OF GRANULAR LEUCOCYTES (OF WHICH ONLY THE POLYMORPH IS HERE SHOWN), MONOCYTES AND LYMPHOCYTES FROM A COMMON STEM-CELL—THE RETICULAR CELL. (After Sabin, Cunningham and Doan.)

The granular white cells have lost the faculty of dividing in Level V ; the monocytes and lymphocytes, on the other hand, can divide in the blood stream. Differentiation of the various types of cell is based on variations in the staining of the mitochondria (represented as black dots or rods) and the neutral red granules (indicated as circles).

[Reproduced from 'Contributions to Embryology,' Vol. XVI., by permission of the Carnegie Institution, Washington.]

in that it is devoid of mitochondria and other granules reacting to Janus green and neutral red respectively. From it are derived (see fig. 51) :

¹ Not to be confused with the immature red blood-corpuscle known as the *reticulocyte* and already described on p. 39.

(1) **The granular leucocytes** (polymorphs and eosinophils).—These, as can be seen, pass through several stages. The myelocyte stage is not normally found in human blood. But if the bone-marrow is markedly stimulated (*e.g.*, in response to certain infections) myelocytes may find their way into the general circulation before being transformed into the finished product—polymorph or eosinophil. *Note.*—In fig. 51 only stages in the maturation of the polymorph are figured; presumably, however, the eosinophil is formed in a similar manner. As for the basiphil, nothing certain can be said.

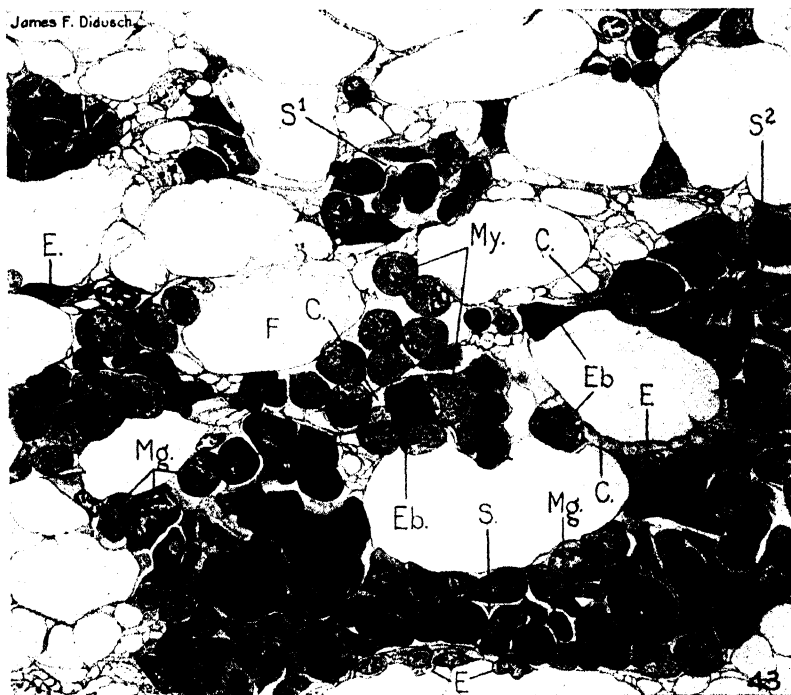


FIG. 52.—BONE-MARROW OF PIGEON, SHOWING FORMATION OF RED BLOOD-CORPUSCLES. (After Sabin, Cunningham and Doan.) $\times 750$.

Three sinuses, S, S¹ and S², are filled with stages in the formation of red cells. The endothelial cells lining the sinuses can be seen at E, and extra-vascular myeloid tissue at My.

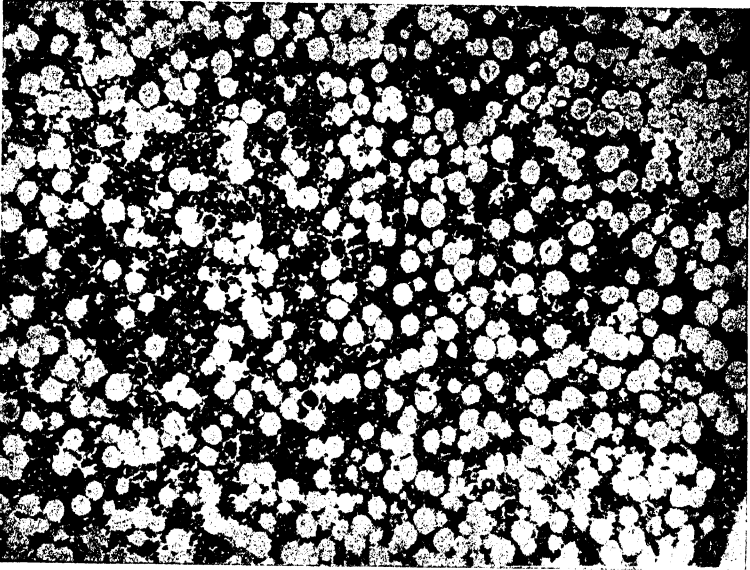
[Reproduced from 'Contributions to Embryology,' by permission of the Carnegie Institution, Washington.]

(2) **Monocytes** (or macrocytes).—These undergo less differentiation than the granulocytes and are therefore a more primitive type of white cell. Fitting in with this conception is the fact that, in contrast with the granular leucocytes, they can divide—apparently by amitosis.

(3) **Lymphocytes.**—Here the remarks made under paragraph (2) apply again. These cells can and do divide. The small lymphocyte would seem to be an older form of the larger one.

It must be noted that, although the stem-cell progenitor (or reticulocyte of Sabin) of the leucocytes exists in the bone-marrow, spleen, lymph-glands

A



B

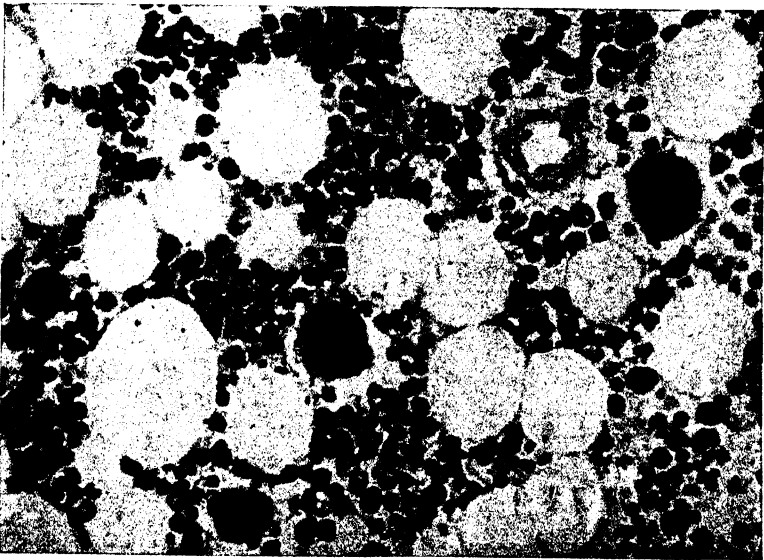


FIG. 53.—SECTIONS OF RED MARROW OF RABBIT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
Photographs.

A, Magnified 75 diameters. B, Magnified 400 diameters.

The clear spaces are due to fat-cells, the fat having been dissolved out in the preparation of the section.
Four giant-cells and an arteriole are clearly visible in B.

and other agglomerations of lymphoid tissue, the *type* of leucocyte which it forms varies in the different situations.

In the earlier foetal stages white cells are formed in the *liver*, and somewhat later in the *spleen*. With the development of the *bone-marrow* all the granular leucocytes come to be formed in this organ; monocytes and lymphocytes are also elaborated in bone-marrow, though the main sources for these would seem to be the spleen and lymph-glands respectively. The latter, according to Sabin, are practically pure cultures of lymphocytes.

The bone-marrow.—The marrow of bone is of a yellow colour in the

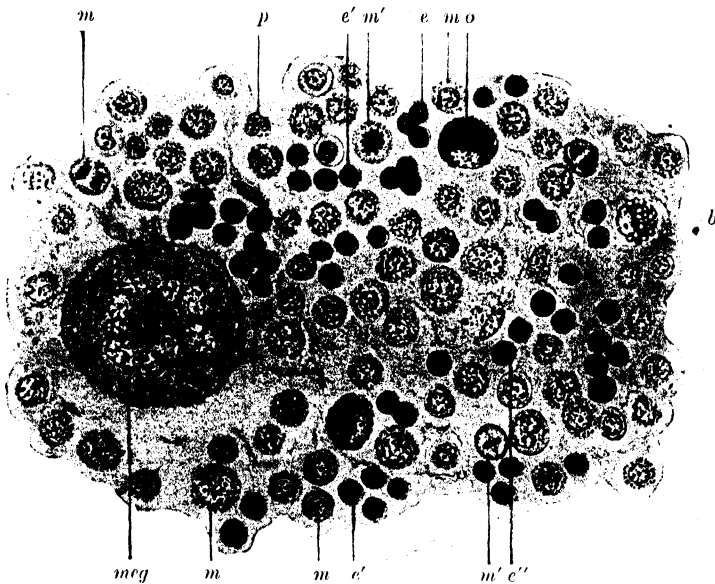


FIG. 54.—FROM A SECTION OF RED MARROW OF YOUNG RABBIT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 450.

e, erythrocytes; *e'*, erythroblasts; *e''*, an erythroblast undergoing mitotic division; *p*, a polymorph leucocyte; *m*, myelocytes; *m'*, myelocytes undergoing mitotic division; *o*, an eosinophil myelocyte; *b*, a basophil myelocyte; *meg*, a megakaryocyte.

shafts of the long bones of most mammals, and is there largely composed of adipose tissue, but in the shafts of the long bones of some animals such as the rabbit, and in the cancellated tissue of most mammals, especially that of the ribs, it has relatively few fat-cells, and is usually red; the colour being mainly due to the large amount of blood in its vessels. This red marrow (figs. 53, 54) is chiefly composed of cells termed **myelocytes**, which resemble large leucocytes, and, like these, are amœboid. They give rise by division to certain of the blood-leucocytes. They exhibit the same kind of differences as the latter in respect of the character of the granules they contain, some having *oxyphil*, others *basiphil*, and others *neutrophil* granules—but basiphils are far more numerous in marrow than in blood.

There are also to be seen mingled with the myelocytes a number of

nucleated cells of a reddish tint, mostly smaller in size than the myelocytes (fig. 54). These are **erythroblasts**¹; they resemble the nucleated coloured corpuscles of the embryo which are so designated and, like those, vary in size, some measuring about 7 μ (**normoblasts**), but others being larger and with larger nuclei (**megaloblasts**). The smaller appear to be formed by division of the larger. The erythrocytes are formed from the normoblasts, the nucleus disappearing and the coloured protoplasm becoming fluid and moulded into a discoid shape.

The megaloblasts multiply by mitotic division to form normoblasts. The latter show every transition, including the reticular appearance already described, to the ordinary red disks, some being seen with the nucleus

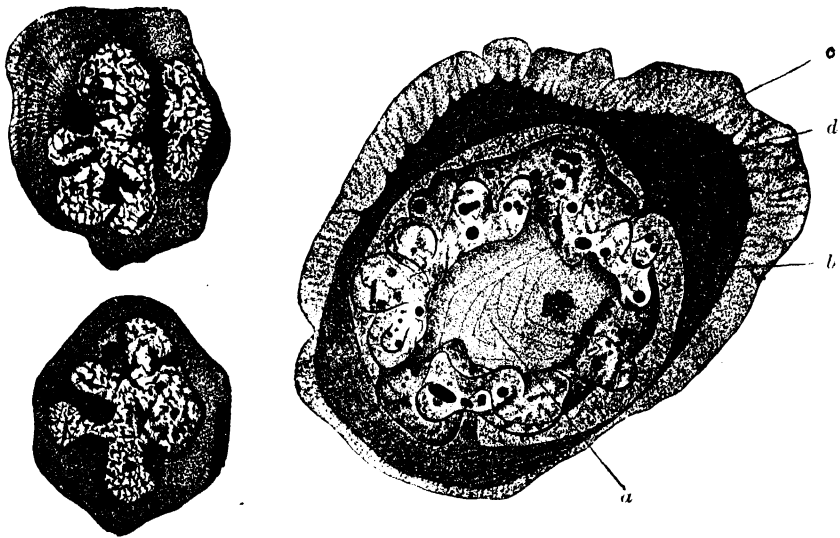


FIG. 55.—CELLS WITH IRREGULAR LOBED NUCLEI AND A GIANT-CELL WITH ANNULAR NUCLEUS FROM BONE-MARROW OF RABBIT. (M. Heidenhain.)

a, b, c, d, zones in the protoplasm.

in what appears to be an atrophied condition. The transformation of an erythroblast into a discoid red blood-cell is accompanied by disappearance of the nucleus, but whether this becomes extruded or simply undergoes absorption is uncertain.

The marrow also contains a number of very large giant-cells, the **myeloplaxes** of Robin (see figs. 54, 55, 56, 57). Myeloplaxes are especially numerous in places where bone is becoming absorbed, but are not confined to such situations, being normal constituents of adult red marrow in which

¹ The term 'erythroblast' was originally applied by the discoverer (Bizzozero) to *all* nucleated red cells which are precursors of erythrocytes. It has, however, been restricted by recent authors (*e.g.* F. E. Sabin) to the nucleated red cells which are formed by division of the primitive large erythroblasts (megaloblasts), *i.e.*, intermediate forms, and which become transformed into normoblasts; these again being transformed into erythrocytes. In the account here given the term is employed in its original meaning.

no such absorption may be taking place. Sometimes they possess several nuclei: this seems to be the case when they are engaged in absorption of

bone, in which case they are known as osteoclasts: but most—the so-called *megakaryocytes*—contain only one large nucleus, which has frequently an annular form, is lobulated, and contains a number of nucleoli. These cells are also characterised by possessing a number of centrioles grouped together near the centre. Such cells are not only present in bone-marrow but are found in other blood-forming organs, such as the lymph-glands and spleen of young animals.

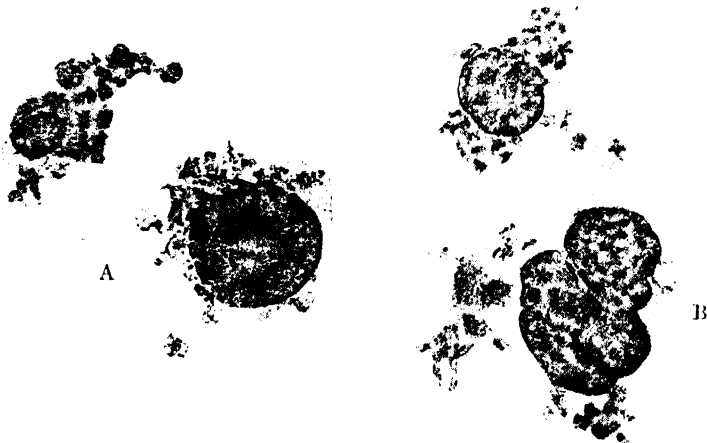


FIG. 56.—FORMATION OF PLATELETS FROM MEGAKARYOCYTE OF MARROW. (J. Homer Wright.)

The figure shows a megakaryocyte with a pseudopodium extending towards a blood-vessel into which platelets are becoming detached from the pseudopodium.

Origin of platelets.—J. Homer Wright (who is confirmed by Ogata and others) described the blood-platelets of mammals as being formed by the megakaryocytes in the bone-marrow. He states that they are given off from amoeboid processes of these cells which project from the marrow into the blood-channels traversing it (fig.

56). If this is the case the platelets of mammals are not homologous with the spindle-shaped thrombocytes of the frog. According to Wright the



[Courtesy Carnegie Institution from *Jl. Exp. Med.* XXXVI.]

FIG. 57.—FORMATION OF PLATELETS FROM MEGAKARYOCYTES IN THE BLOOD. A PATHOLOGICAL CASE—MYELOGENOUS LEUCAEMIA. (After J. F. Minot). $\times 1300$.

A, Showing the differentiation of platelets from the cytoplasm; B, A later stage of A.

latter are rather homologous with the megakaryocytes of mammals and similarly bud off minute platelets (see p. 69 and fig. 68).

In the condition known as myelogenous leucæmia megakaryocytes from the bone-marrow may appear in the blood-stream. G. R. Minot has shown that platelets can be clearly seen in the cytoplasm of these detached giant cells (fig. 57).

According to Jordan hæmopoiesis begins in man as early as the sixth week in the marrow of the clavicle ; as late as the third month in that of the ribs, and not till the fifth month in the sternum.

That in the adult the bone-marrow is the source of the granular leucocytes seems evident from the fact that there is no other situation except the blood where cells of this description occur in any quantity, and that cases of pathological hypertrophy and hyperfunctioning of the marrow show a great accession into the blood not only of immature red cells but also of leucocytes, which for the most part belong to the granular varieties (including basiphils). Whereas, in hypertrophic conditions of lymphoid organs, the leucocytosis which results chiefly affects the lymphocytes and to some extent the monocytes.

FORMATION OF CLASMATOCYTES.

We have seen (fig. 50) that the vascular endothelium in certain situations gives rise to red blood-corpuscles. According to Sabin it also produces a large, intensely phagocytic cell, the **clasmatocyte**, which is distinguishable from the monocyte by its vital staining and other features. The monocyte is thus characterised by a rosette of small bodies stained by neutral red ; it always exhibits mitochondria. The clasmatocyte in contrast contains a mass of bodies stainable with neutral red and very variable in size. Its mitochondria are scanty or absent. This cell, according to Sabin, is rare in the blood-stream, its free forms being abundant in connective tissue. The monocyte, on the other hand, is common in the blood and may also be found in connective tissue.

THE RETICULO-ENDOTHELIAL SYSTEM.¹

This system, described below, undoubtedly comprises the cells called clasmatocytes by Sabin. According to many authors the monocytes of Sabin should likewise be grouped with it. The account given here is essentially in agreement with Aschoff's views.

Ribbert (1904) first showed and Aschoff and others have since accentuated the fact that there exist in different situations phagocytic cells having a special affinity for certain dyes of a colloidal nature, the dye when introduced into the circulation being taken up by these particular cells, which then show an appearance of coloured granules in their cytoplasm. This is known as *vital staining*. Among such dyes are pyrrhol blue, lithium carmine, and trypan blue. They are mostly of an acid nature.

¹ For the history of the subject with bibliography, the article by v. Möllendorff in *Ergebnisse der Physiologie*, Bd. xviii, may be consulted. The monograph by Cappell in the *Journal of Pathology and Bacteriology*, xxxii, 1929, gives an excellent account of the scope and methods of vital staining. See also A. Du Bois, *Système Réticulo-Endothéliale*; 1934; Masson.

Basic dyes may also be taken up by living cells. They, however, have no special affinity for particular cells, but under suitable conditions stain every cell, especially the nucleus. Such staining is usually preceded by the death of the cell.

Ribbert, and subsequently Tait and other workers, have shown that fine suspended particles (quartz, carbon, etc.) introduced into the blood-stream are taken up by the 'vital staining' cells and not to anything like the same extent by others. They also take up lipid matter introduced into the circulation. The name 'reticulo-endothelial system' (Aschoff) has been given collectively to these special phagocytes wherever they occur:

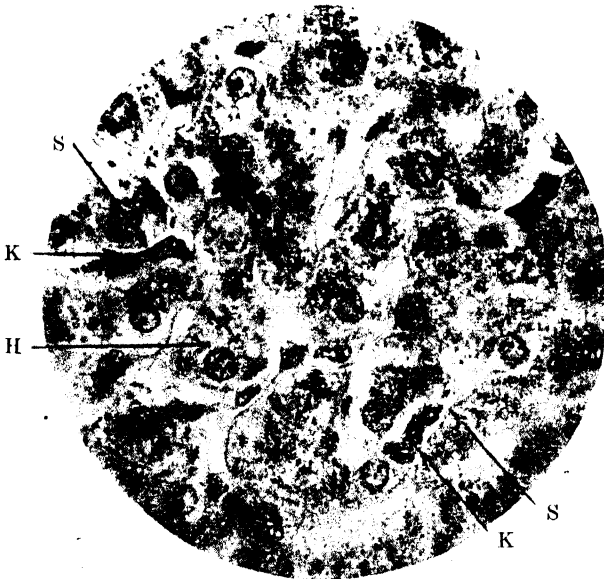


FIG. 58.—LIVER OF RABBIT AFTER SEVERAL INTRAPERITONEAL INJECTIONS OF TRYPAN BLUE. (H. M. Carleton.) Highly magnified.

The Kupfer cells (K) are heavily charged with granules of dye and jut into the sinusoids (S). Finer dye granules may be seen in the hepatic cells (H).

the term includes the network of branched cells in which the phagocytes in question are involved.

The following are generally enumerated as belonging to the reticulo-endothelial system:—the cells of the reticulum of lymph-glands and of the reticulum of the spleen-pulp, isolated cells in the blood-channels of the liver known as von Kupffer's cells (fig. 58), the vascular endothelium of bone-marrow, that of the sinus-like blood-vessels of the suprarenal glands, and that of the anterior lobe of the pituitary body.

The cells above enumerated were commonly assumed to have been derived from the endothelium of the blood-vessels and lymphatics. But endothelium in general does not show this affinity for vital stains and lipoids, nor do the ordinary phagocytes of the blood and lymph; these therefore cannot be included in the reticulo-endothelial system.

Organs like the spleen and lymph-glands containing much reticular tissue exhibit a relatively considerable number of large phagocytes, both in the reticulum (fig. 59) and in the blood or lymph leaving the organ. The free forms are usually known as **histiocytes**. It has been affirmed that the venous blood in the right side of the heart is relatively rich in such large phagocytes, whereas that of the left heart, and the arterial blood generally, contains but few; if this is the case most of the phagocytic cells disappear in passing through the lungs. Others may migrate from blood-vessels elsewhere, leaving the capillaries of the systemic circulation and wandering into the connective tissue; this is the source of many of the wandering phagocytes (clasmatocytes, histiocytes) of areolar tissue.

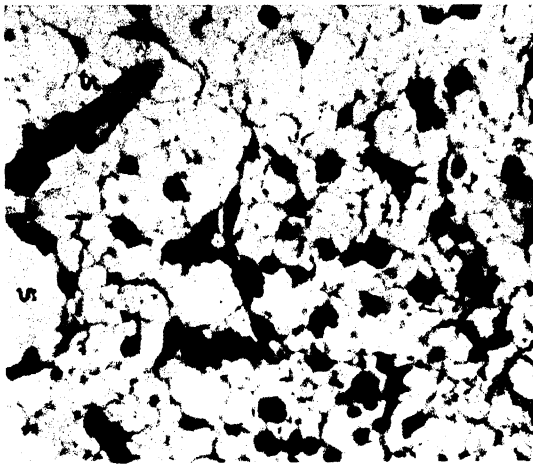


FIG. 59.—RETICULO-ENDOTHELIAL TISSUE OF SPLEEN-PULP. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 385. Photograph.

The specimen is from a rabbit's spleen which had been perfused with Ringer to wash out the blood from the interstices of the pulp. *tr*, a trabecula; *v*, venous sinus, communicating with the interstices of the tissue.

The cells of the reticulo-endothelial system, besides having an affinity for colloidal dyes and arresting inorganic particles such as carbon introduced into the blood, also have a special tendency to engulf micro-organisms and may in this way serve as a protection against invasion by pathogenic micro-organisms—particularly protozoa. By some they are also regarded as playing an important part in the reaction of the tissues in tuberculosis. The Kupffer cells of the liver and the macrophages of the spleen have long been remarkable for the tendency they exhibit to take in red blood-cells, which appear to undergo disintegration within them, the hæmoglobin furnishing material from which the pigments of the bile are produced. It is known that such production is not confined to the liver; it is probably a general function of these phagocytic cells wherever they occur.

It will be seen that the elements which are grouped together under the head of reticulo-endothelium are of somewhat diverse character and origin. The main

link which binds the elements of the system together is the possession, under certain conditions, of a pronounced degree of phagocytosis—a physiological characteristic. The phagocytic cells are not permanently fixed : they are liable to become detached, as in the case of the Kupffer cells.

Blocking.—Importance is attached by pathologists and bacteriologists to the possible activities of the reticulo-endothelial cells in connexion with protection against and destruction of micro-organisms by virtue of the pronounced phagocytosis characteristic of those cells. With the view of studying their functions in this respect, experiments have been made to produce engorgement of their cytoplasm with solid particles by intravascular injections (*e.g.*, of Indian ink or of quartz particles), with the idea of producing interference with the functions of the cells. To this the term 'blocking' has been applied. When thus treated the 'histiocytes' may break away from their normal position and become carried away in the bloodstream as has been described for the Kupffer cells of the liver.

LESSON IV.

CHANGES IN THE HUMAN BLOOD-CORPUSCLES AS THE RESULT OF THE ACTION OF WATER AND OTHER REAGENTS.

1. MAKE a preparation of human blood, as in Lesson II, § 1, p. 32, and apply a very small drop of distilled water at one edge of the cover-glass. Examine at a place where the two fluids are becoming mixed. Notice particularly the first effect of water upon both red and white corpuscles, as well as the ultimate action (*haemolysis*).

2. Repeat on another preparation, using very dilute alkali (0·2 per cent. caustic potash) instead of water. Notice the solution of the white and the rapid hæmolysis of the red cells as the alkali reaches them.

3. Repeat on another preparation, using bile, or a solution of bile-salts, or a dilute solution of saponin. The last especially is a very effective hæmolytic agent.

4. Repeat on another preparation, using dilute acetic acid (0·5 per cent. in normal saline). Observe that the ultimate effect of the acid upon the red corpuscles is similar to that of water, although a first result may be to cause crenation. But it has a different action upon the white cells, especially bringing their nuclei into view.

5. Make a preparation of blood mixed with normal salt solution, as in Lesson II, § 2, p. 32, and investigate the action of tannic acid.

6. Study the phenomena exhibited in drops of blood taken from different individuals or different species of animal and mixed on a clean slide with the object of observing agglutination (human blood) and specific hæmolysis (animals).

ACTION OF REAGENTS ON ERYTHROCYTES.

Hæmolysis.—The human red blood-corpuscle consists as we have already seen (p. 36) of a small drop of coloured liquid bounded externally by a film-like envelope of colourless matter which forms a semi-permeable membrane enclosing the fluid contents of the corpuscle. These consist of an aqueous solution of hæmoglobin, salts, and other substances. When treated with any solution which is hypotonic to the corpuscles, water passes by osmosis through the envelope and swells the corpuscles, causing them to become first cup-shaped and then spherical; the spherical corpuscle is at first smaller in diameter than the discoid cell from which it is produced. Eventually the membrane is either burst by the passage of water into the interior, or sufficiently distended to allow the solution of hæmoglobin to escape through its pores, the colourless envelope being left (fig. 60, *a* to *e*). This phenomenon is known as *hæmolysis*. The opposite effect is produced by a hypertonic solution, *e.g.*, of salt, which by increasing the density of the fluid in which the corpuscles float, causes diffusion of water out of the corpuscle and consequent shrinking and corrugation of the surface, a crenated form

being produced. The same change is brought about by the evaporation of water from the plasma, if the blood is exposed to air.

Besides the ordinary crenated form produced by hypertonic solutions another kind of crenation is often seen, in which the projections from the surface instead of being bluntly rounded are sharp and pointed (thorn-apple form : fig. 60, *f*).

Hæmolysis can be effected not only by water, but also by dilute acids and alkalis, by the action of heat (60 C.), by repeatedly freezing and thawing blood, by the action of ether or chloroform, and by the passage of electric shocks. An aqueous solution of saponin (1 in 10,000 to 1 in 5000) is a most potent agent, and is extensively used in experiments to test the resistance of red cells to hæmolysis. Dilute alkalis and solutions of bile-salts rapidly cause the discoid red cells to become spherical, and then almost instantly effect their complete solution.

The proteins and lipids of serum have an inhibitory action on hæmolysis,

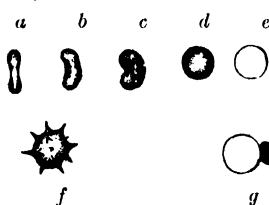


FIG. 60. — HÆMOLYSIS OF ERYTHROCYTE BY WATER; AND EFFECTS OF HYPERTONIC SOLUTION OF SALT AND OF TANNIC ACID ON RED CELLS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

a-e, successive effects of water upon a red corpuscle; *f*, effect of hypertonic solution of salt; *g*, effect of tannic acid.

while certain other substances have the contrary effect (Ponder). Tannic acid produces a peculiar result (fig. 60, *g*): the hæmoglobin is discharged from the corpuscle, but is immediately precipitated in an altered form, remaining adherent to the envelope as a round globule of a brownish tinge.

Most of the hæmolytic effects here described occur, as above mentioned, by a process of osmosis. In others a solution of the envelope of the corpuscle is produced by the reagent. In other cases again the envelope either is distended until it bursts, or is altered and rendered more porous so that the hæmoglobin escapes.

The membrane of the red blood-corpuscle is remarkable for its thinness and is believed to be one or two molecules in thickness. It is certainly lipoidal and it probably contains protein also. That lipid solvents, such as ether and chloroform, cause hæmolysis is hence understandable.

The fact that no cleft is seen in the envelopes of the red corpuscles even when they appear to have burst may also be explained on the supposition that there is an external film of a lipid nature, any rent in it hence tending immediately to close up again when the opposed edges come into contact. This also offers an explanation of the fact that blood-corpuscles can be cut through without the fluid contents escaping, and that when subjected to heat they break up into droplets of coloured fluid, each surrounded by a lipid film. Gentle heat increases the tendency to rouleaux formation, perhaps by increasing the stickiness of the surface layer of lipid material.

Stroma theory.—The envelope of the erythrocyte was termed *stroma* by Rollett (1870), a name which rested upon a false conception of the structure of the corpuscle. In adopting the designation, he supposed the corpuscle to be formed of a homogeneous solid or semi-solid protein material, permeated by hæmoglobin. This assumption, however, accords ill with the facts of the osmotic phenomena of the corpuscle; whereas the supposition that the corpuscle consists of a drop of coloured fluid

enclosed by a semi-permeable envelope is in accordance with all the known facts regarding such phenomena. It is true that in the mammalian corpuscle the envelope is far too thin to be observed in the optical section of the corpuscle. But it can be stained by dyes (W. Roberts). And in the blood-corpuscles of *Amphibia* it can not only be distinctly seen, but with any slight increase in density of the plasma becomes wrinkled and creased. In these nucleated corpuscles also the nucleus becomes readily displaced in freshly drawn blood from its position in the centre of the corpuscle and may lie quite at the side (figs. 70, 71). This is a clear indication of the fluid nature of the contents of the corpuscle. There can be little doubt that the contents of the mammalian red blood-corpuscles are fluid: the free movement of parasites within them is proof of this.

Agglutinins.—Another phenomenon which frequently occurs when the blood of two different individuals, even of the same race or family, is mixed—or if the plasma or serum of one is added to the blood-corpuscles of another—is a clumping (agglutination) of the red cells. This clumping is caused by a specific constituent (*agglutinin*) of the plasma of the one individual reacting with a specific receptor (*agglutigen*) of the corpuscles of the other.

Observation has shown that all individuals, without distinction of age or sex, can, as regards blood-agglutination, be included in four groups. Of these groups one contains no agglutigen in the corpuscles, which are therefore never agglutinated; these form a group designated O. In the three remaining groups there are specific agglutinogens, A and B, in the corpuscles. One of the three groups has only A, another only B, and the remaining one both A and B. The four groups are accordingly known as O, A, B, and AB. (According to the original description of Janský (1906) these groups were numbered I, II, III, and IV. But as subsequent writers have reversed the numbers it is better to discard numerical designations.) The plasma of group A contains an agglutinin, *b*, reacting with the agglutigen B; the plasma of B an agglutinin, *a*, reacting with the agglutigen A; the plasma of O an agglutinin, *ab*, reacting with the agglutinogens A and B. The plasma of AB has no agglutinin, and produces no clumping of the corpuscles of any group.

The mutual reactions of the agglutinins and agglutinogens of the various groups may be shortly stated as follows:

The plasma of O agglutinates the corpuscles of A, B, and AB.

"	"	" A	"	"	"	"	" B and AB.
"	"	" B	"	"	"	"	" A and AB.
"	"	" AB	does not agglutinate	the corpuscles of any group.			

The corpuscles of O are not agglutinated by the plasma of any group.

"	"	" A	"	"	"	"	" A or AB.
"	"	" B	"	"	"	"	" B or AB.
"	"	" AB	"	"	"	"	" AB.

Since the corpuscles of O are not liable to agglutination an individual of this group can always be used as a donor of blood. For although his plasma can cause agglutination in the other groups, the amount transfused is generally insufficient to effect this. Nevertheless it is considered better to employ a donor belonging to the same group as the intended recipient, and for the operation of blood-transfusion both the group to which the patient belongs and that of the proposed donor should be determined.

The determination is simplified by the use of test-serums derived from individuals belonging to groups A and B respectively.¹ The following is the method :

Mix three drops of the patient's blood with 5 c.c. of a 3·8 per cent. solution of sodium citrate : this keeps the blood fluid and forms a suspension of corpuscles. Place a drop of testing serum from A on one microscope slide and a drop from B on another, and close to each of these drops place a small drop of the patient's citrated blood. Mix each pair of drops. Agglutination, if it occurs, can be detected by the naked eye and confirmed by a low power of the microscope : the appearance is as if grains of cayenne pepper were floating in the fluid.

The result may be :

- (a) Both serum of A and serum of B cause agglutination ; therefore the patient belongs to group AB.
- (b) Only serum of A causes agglutination ; therefore he belongs to group B.
- (c) Only serum of B causes agglutination ; therefore he belongs to group A.
- (d) Neither serum causes agglutination ; therefore he belongs to group O.

If preserved serums are not available, a few drops of blood are taken from the patient and allowed to coagulate in a small test-tube. When serum exudes from the clot, a drop is mixed with citrated blood of the proposed donor. If agglutination is produced another donor must be found.

If time presses, a drop of blood from a proposed donor and a small drop of the patient's blood may be rapidly mixed with a needle on a slide, and the result as regards agglutination observed.

In all these operations particular care must be taken that the slides and other utensils employed are absolutely clean and free from grease.

Individual and racial variations in the blood-groups.—Several types of blood-groups are distinguished ; these follow to a certain extent a racial distribution. The average European type is approximately given as O, 45 ; A, 42 ; B, 10 ; AB, 3 per cent. Most Oriental races show a smaller proportion of A and relatively more of B. This is also the case with negroid races. The Japanese type is peculiar, viz. O, 30·86 ; A, 37·66 ; B, 21·79 ; and AB, 9·68. The pure North American Indian type was found by Snyder to consist almost entirely of O individuals (O, 91·3 ; A, 7·7 ; B, 1 ; and AB, O). On the other hand the Australian aborigines average O, 57 ; A, 38·5 ; B, 3 ; and AB, 1·5. The blood-group condition is hereditary and follows Mendelian laws. Probably the original condition of mankind was O (Group I of Jansky) and the two dominant mutations A and B (II and III) made their appearance later, A in Europe, B in the Orient.

The blood-group to which any individual belongs is already manifest at birth so far as the agglutinogens of the corpuscles are concerned, and remains the same throughout life. The agglutinins of the plasma do not appear until some months after birth. The agglutinogens A and B are inherited independently and are therefore not carried by the same chromosome. The ascertaining of the group to which an individual belongs can therefore be made use of in determining questions of paternity.

Blood-groups have not been found in the lower animals, with the possible exception of the anthropoid apes. They were first noticed in man in 1900 by two independent observers, K. Landsteiner in Germany and S. G. Shattock in England. The investigation of the racial peculiarities is of considerable anthropological interest.

ACTION OF REAGENTS ON LEUCOCYTES.

The structure of leucocytes is brought out by the action of some of the reagents used to show that of erythrocytes. If water is added their amoeboid movements soon stop (although with the addition of a very small quantity

¹ Such serums are sold commercially and will retain their properties for some time.

of water the movements may at first be increased), the cytoplasm becomes swollen out into a globular form by imbibition of fluid—this indicates that it must have a superficial film which can act as an osmotic membrane—and the granules within the protoplasm take on an active Brownian motion. The nucleus becomes clearer, more globular and more conspicuous. With the further action of water the cytoplasm becomes disintegrated, and the granules are set free.

Under the action of acids, the nuclei of the white corpuscles become shrunken and distinct, and a granular precipitate is formed in the protoplasm around the nucleus. Along with these changes, a part of the protoplasm generally swells out so as to form a clear bleb-like expansion; an appearance which often accompanies the death of the corpuscle from other causes. Caustic alkalies, even as dilute as 2 parts per 1000, rapidly cause complete destruction and solution of all leucocytes.

LESSON V.

THE BLOOD-CORPUSCLES OF OVIPARA.

1. OBTAIN a drop of frog's, toad's or newt's blood, and mount it either undiluted, or mixed with a very small quantity of frog-Ringer (p. 32, footnote). Examine with the high power. Notice the shape of the red blood-corpuscles both when seen flat and edgewise, and the nucleus within each.

Measure with the scale (p. 28) ten corpuscles (long and short diameters), and from the results obtain the average dimensions of a corpuscle.

Notice the white cells, smaller than the red, but larger than the pale corpuscles of human blood, although otherwise generally resembling these. Platelets may also be seen; in the frog they are spindle-shaped and contain a nucleus.

Sketch two or three red corpuscles and as many white.

Be careful not to mistake the rounded liberated nuclei of crushed red corpuscles for white corpuscles.

Very large cells and nuclei belonging to the cutaneous glands as well as the granular secretion of those glands may be present in this preparation if it is obtained from the newt by cutting the tail.

2. Apply a minute drop of distilled water to the edge of the cover-glass of the above preparation and note its action.

Sketch two or three cells altered by the action of water.

3. Mount another drop of blood, and apply dilute acetic acid (1 per cent. in saline) instead of water at the edge of the cover-glass. Make sketches showing the effect of the acid upon both red and white cells.

4. Make permanent preparations of blood of frog and other animals as described on p. 32, § 5, for human blood.

ERYTHROCYTES.

The red cells of Amphibia (fig 61), as well as of nearly all vertebrates below mammals, are biconvex elliptical disks, considerably larger than the biconcave circular disks of mammals.

The following are the dimensions in microns of the coloured corpuscles of some oviparous vertebrates:

	Long Diameter.	Short Diameter.
Pigeon	14·7	6·5
Frog	22·3	15·7
Newt	29·3	19·5
Proteus	58·0	35·0
Amphiuma	77·0	46·0

The measurements were made from dry films.

Amphibian red cells are far less numerous than those of mammals, the number per cubic millimeter in the blood of the common frog (*Rana temporaria*) being only from three to four hundred thousand.

In addition to the coloured body of the corpuscle—which consists, as in mammals, of a solution of hæmoglobin and electrolytes enclosed within an envelope—there is a colourless nucleus, also of elliptical shape, but easily becoming globular, especially if liberated by any means from the corpuscle. The nucleus resembles that of many other cells in structure, being bounded by a membrane. It is not distinct in the unaltered corpuscle, since it is not coloured by hæmoglobin and therefore looks paler than the rest (figs. 61, 70, 71). It is brought more clearly into view by the action of reagents, especially those of an acid nature. Otherwise the action of reagents upon the red corpuscle of ovipara is similar to that upon the mammalian corpuscle,

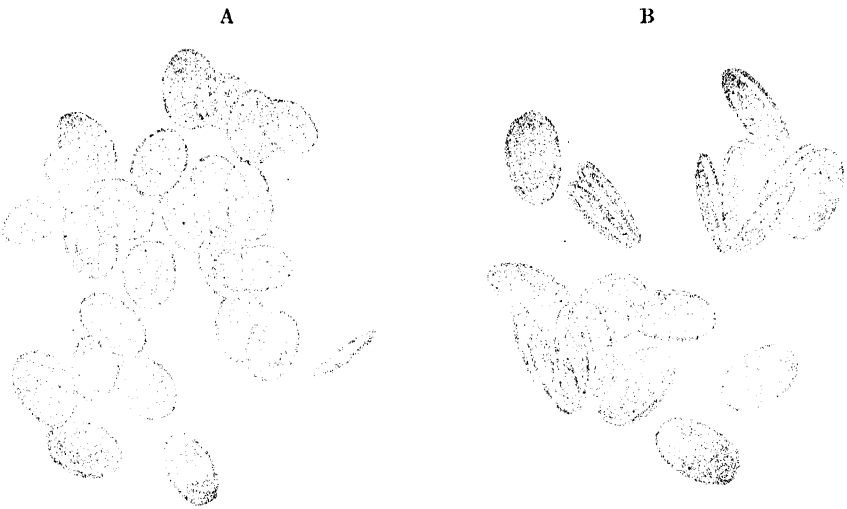


FIG. 61.—AMPHIBIAN ERYTHROCYTES. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 450$. Photographs.

A, from the frog. B, from the toad.

water and hypotonic solutions causing it to swell into a globular form and then to become decolorised; hypertonic solutions causing wrinkling of the envelope, and so on. As a first effect, water and certain other fluids may cause the hæmoglobin to retire from the envelope at the points where the fluid is passing through the membrane: a stellate appearance is thereby often produced. Boric acid causes the hæmoglobin of the newt's corpuscle to become partially or wholly collected around the nucleus, which may then be extruded along with it from the corpuscle.

A reticular apparatus of Golgi has been described in the erythrocytes of oviparous vertebrates.

LEUCOCYTES.

The colourless corpuscles of ovipara, although larger, are very similar to those of mammals, being either wholly pale and finely granular, or enclosing a number of very distinct granules of like nature to those met with in Mammalia. More or less the same varieties of leucocyte can be distinguished,

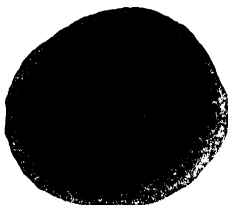


FIG. 62.—LYMPHOCYTE OF TRITON, SHOWING THE RETICULAR STRUCTURE (AFTER FIXATION) OF ITS NUCLEUS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 2000$. Untouched photograph.

The cell was fixed by steam, and afterwards stained with hæmatoxylin.



FIG. 63.—TWO LEUCOCYTES OF LEPIDOSIREN, SHOWING CENTRIOLE, CENTROSOME AND ASTRAL RAYS IN CYTOPLASM. (T. H. Bryce.)

A, macrocyte, with kidney-shaped nucleus.
B, polymorph, with lobed nucleus (the threads of chromatin joining the lobes are not shown).

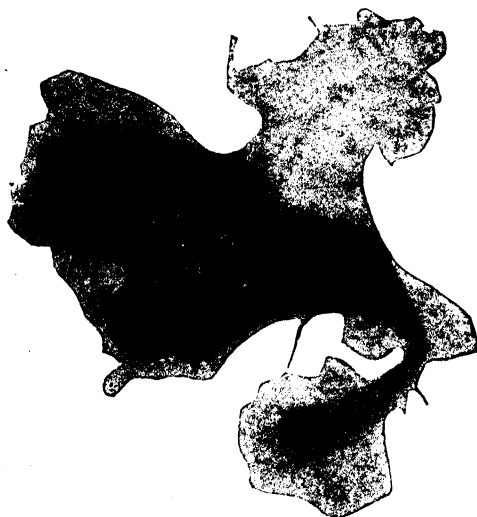


FIG. 64.—POLYMORPH LEUCOCYTE OF TRITON FIXED BY STEAM IN AMCEBOID CONDITION AND STAINED WITH HÆMATOXYLIN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 1360$. Untouched photograph.

Notice the homogeneous appearance of the ectoplasm as compared with that of the endoplasm. The nucleus is multilobed, the lobes being joined by threads of chromatin. A reticular structure is apparent in it.

viz., polymorphs (fig. 63, *B*; fig. 64), lymphocytes (fig. 62), oxyphils, macrocytes (fig. 63, *A*), and basiphils. As might be expected, reagents have effects upon the amphibian leucocyte similar to those produced on the mammalian cell.

On the average there are in the frog about 7000 white cells in a cubic millimeter of blood, *i.e.*, about the same number as in man, although the number of red cells is far less.

The presence of glycogen may be demonstrated in some leucocytes by its reaction with iodine solution (port-wine colour).

BLOOD-PLATELETS.

The **blood-platelets** (thrombocytes, thigmocytes) are much fewer in number than in mammals. They are of spindle or sausage-like shape (fig. 65), often

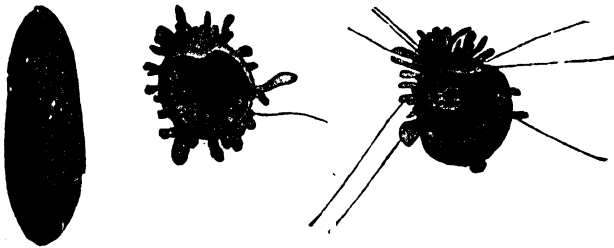


FIG. 65.—PLATELET OF SALAMANDER, AND THE CHANGES WHICH IT UNDERWENT IMMEDIATELY AFTER WITHDRAWAL OF THE BLOOD FROM THE VESSELS. (F. Meves.)

with one pole of the spindle drawn out more than the other. They contain a nucleus-like body which shows a tendency to be divided into lobes. The cytoplasm may be clear or may contain particles staining with safranin. Like the blood-platelets of mammals, those of the frog show rapid changes as soon as the blood is drawn. These changes have been described by Meves and by Tait. The elongated corpuscle first contracts and becomes more globular, its nucleus changing similarly in shape. Irregular processes then commence to protrude from the corpuscle (fig. 65), and very soon fine threads are shot out radially in all directions. These become attached to those of other platelets, or to any object which may be in the vicinity of the platelet (fig. 66). The filaments, which appear to be of a fibrinous nature, and may possibly be threads of fibrin, then begin to retract and drag upon the objects which are entangled by them. In this manner groups of erythrocytes may be drawn together towards common centres, producing a radiate or rosetted arrangement (fig. 67). These changes do not occur if the blood is kept on solid paraffin or any surface which it does not wet (Tait and Green).

It is suggested by Tait that the tendency of the blood-platelets to attach themselves to a foreign or injured surface (thigmotaxis), as well as their entanglement and agglutination, may serve to plug small apertures in blood-vessels caused by injury, and thus at once aid in arresting hæmorrhage. In

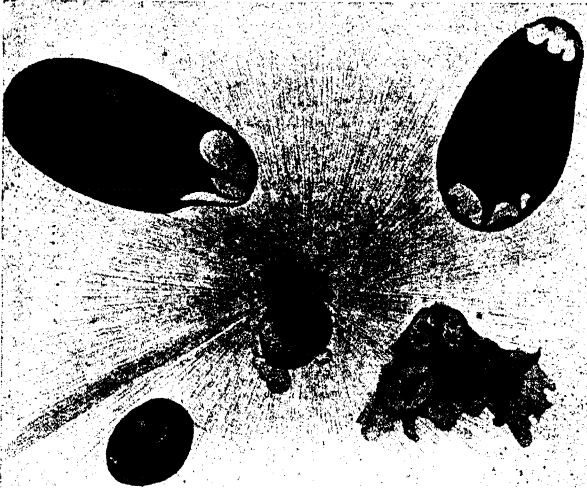


FIG. 66.—PLATELET OF SALAMANDER, SHOWING ITS IRREGULAR PROJECTIONS AND FIBRINOUS FILAMENTS RADIATING FROM IT AND ATTACHED TO ADJACENT BLOOD-CORPUSCLES. (F. Meves.)

Two erythrocytes, a free nucleus, and a polymorph leucocyte are included in the figure.

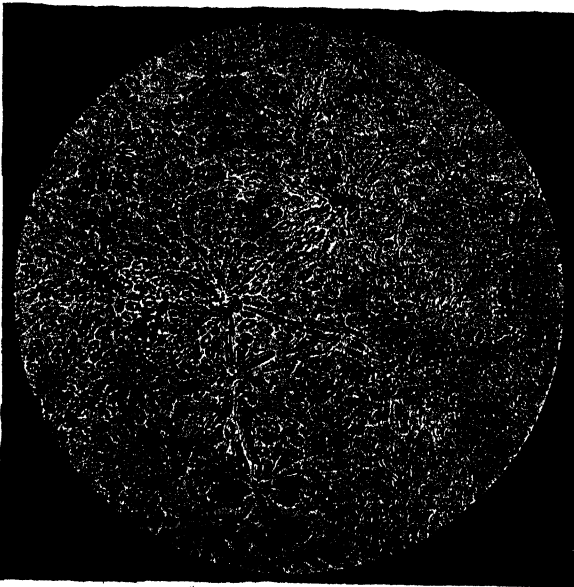


FIG. 67 —MICROSCOPIC PREPARATION OF FROG'S BLOOD SHOWING THE MANNER IN WHICH THE ERYTHROCYTES BECOME ARRANGED IN ROSETTED LINES OWING TO THEIR FIXATION BY THE CONTRACTING THREADS FROM THE PLATELETS WHICH ARE AGGLUTINATED AT CERTAIN POINTS. (J. Tait.) $\times 90$.

many invertebrates plugging of a wound is effected in the same way by a special kind of amœboid cell.

The thigmotaxis which is characteristic of these structures is further illustrated by the fact that fine suspended particles (Indian ink) introduced



FIG. 68.—AMPHIBIAN PLATELET WITH PLATELETS BUDDING OFF FROM IT.
(J. Homer Wright.)

into the dorsal lymph-sac of the frog are found in considerable number in the cytoplasm of the platelets, as well as in the white corpuscles. Coarser particles (*e.g.*, of quartz) cause lysis of the thrombocytes, which adhere to them (Tait and Elridge).

Notkin found the average number of platelets in frog's blood to be 15,000 in a cubic millimeter.

As already stated, J. Homer Wright regards the spindle-shaped thrombocytes of amphibian blood as representing the megakaryocytes of the marrow of mammals, and delineates minute platelets like those of mammalian blood as being budded off from them (fig. 68).

LESSON VI.

THE AMÆBOID PHENOMENA OF LEUCOCYTES.

1. MAKE a preparation of blood from the finger in the usual way. To prevent evaporation of water draw a brush just moistened with pure paraffin oil around the edge of the cover-glass. Avoid any excess of oil. Place the preparation upon a warm stage and heat this to about the temperature of the body (38° C.). Bring a leucocyte under observation with the high power, and watch the changes of shape which it undergoes. To become convinced of these alterations in form, make a series of outline sketches of the same corpuscle at intervals of a minute.



FIG. 69.—LIVING POLYMORPH LEUCOCYTE OF TRITON IN FRESHLY DRAWN BLOOD.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 1360$. Untouched photograph.

The photograph was taken in monochromatic light with Zeiss 2mm. apochromatic objective and a compensating eye-piece.

2. Mount a drop of frog's or newt's blood diluted with an equal amount of frog-Ringer, and examine it in the same manner upon the warm stage, at first cold, afterwards warm; the temperature must, however, be kept below 30° C. Observe the effect of warmth in accelerating the amœboid movements of the pale corpuscles.

3. Take a small quantity of yeast shaken up in frog-saline. Mix a very small drop of the yeast and salt solution with a drop of newt's blood, lightly oiling the edges of the cover-glass as before. Endeavour to observe the taking-in of the yeast-torulæ by leucocytes. Sketch one or two corpuscles which have ingested torulæ.

Particles of carbon (Indian ink) or of carmine may be used instead of yeast for this experiment.

The **amœboid phenomena** which are exhibited by the protoplasm of the colourless blood-corpuscles were first described in the blood of fish by Wharton Jones (1846). They consists mainly of spontaneous changes of form, produced by the throwing out of processes (*pseudopodia*) in various directions (figs. 69, 70, 71). When first thrown out the pseudopodia are quite clear; the granules of the cytoplasm may subsequently flow into them. If the corpuscle is stimulated, either mechanically, as by tapping the cover-glass, or electrically, all pseudopodia are retracted, the corpuscles becoming spherical. A change of form caused by the protrusion of the pseudopodia may, when active, be followed by changes in place, or actual locomotion, of the corpuscle.

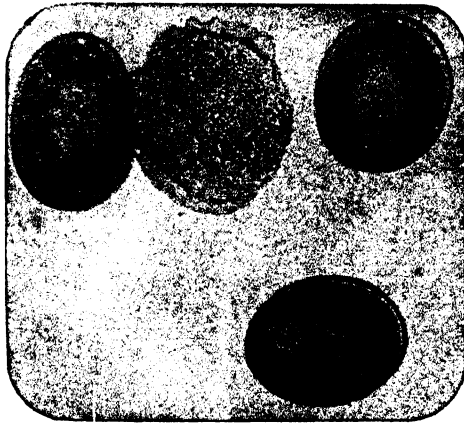


FIG. 70.—LIVING OXYPHIL LEUCOCYTE OF SALAMANDER BEGINNING TO ADHERE TO AN ERYTHROCYTE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Fresh preparation without addition of fluid. $\times 600$. Untouched photograph.

Two other erythrocytes are included in the field. Notice that the nuclei in these have undergone a change of position within the corpuscle, showing that its contents must be fluid.

When a pseudopodium, or the external surface of the protoplasm, comes in contact with any foreign body, the protoplasm tends to flow round and enwrap it (fig. 71); if it is small, it is drawn into the corpuscle; particles thus ingested may be conveyed by the corpuscle in its movements from one place to another.

This property (**phagocytosis**) plays an important part in many physiological and pathological processes. Pathogenic micro-organisms are taken into the protoplasm of some leucocytes, there to be destroyed. Often they undergo digestion therein.

The migration of white cells from the blood-vessels into the surrounding tissues (which especially occurs in inflamed parts) is related to their amœboid activity.

Conditions which are favourable to amœboid activity of leucocytes are:—

(1) the natural medium in which they live, such as plasma, serum, or lymph;

(2) a certain temperature. In warm-blooded animals the phenomena cease below about $10^{\circ}\text{C}.$: when gradually warmed, the movements become more and more active up to a point, the maximum being two or three degrees above the natural temperature of the blood: above this point they become spheroidal, and at a somewhat higher temperature their protoplasm is coagulated and killed; (3) a pH slightly above 7. On the other hand, a pH below 7 is detrimental to the movements, and the addition of even a minute amount of acid to the serum or Ringer in which leucocytes are being observed at once kills the corpuscles and stops their movements. Narcotic gases and vapours, such as carbonic acid gas or ether or chloroform vapour, also arrest the movements, but they recommence after a time if the action

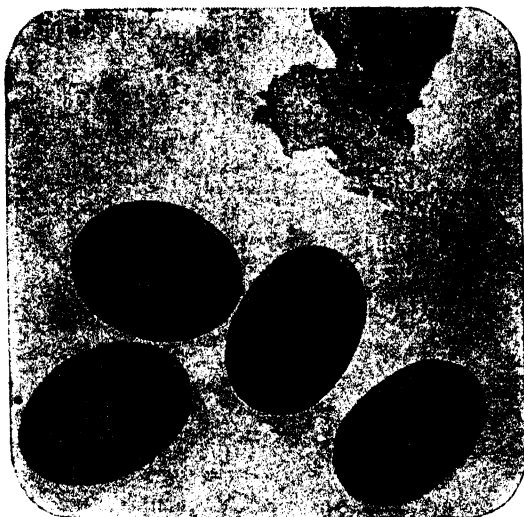


FIG. 71.—HIGHLY AMOEBOID PHAGOCYTTIC LEUCOCYTE OF SALAMANDER, ENVELOPING AN ERYTHROCYTE (a portion only of this is included in the field). (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 600$. Untouched photograph.

Four other erythrocytes are seen; all have their nuclei somewhat displaced.

of the reagent is not too prolonged. Any increase in the density of the medium produces a diminution of amoeboid activity, whilst, on the other hand, a slight decrease in its density has the opposite effect.

If blood-plasma is preserved in sealed aseptic tubes, the white corpuscles may retain their amoeboid activity for as long a period as one year according to J. Jolly. The temperature varied from $0^{\circ}\text{C}.$ to $+5^{\circ}\text{C}.$, the cells being motile at the latter figure. Sherrington had previously found that it is retained for three weeks in plasma kept fluid by the addition of a minute amount of potassium oxalate. There appears in fact no limit to the time cells may be kept alive *in vitro* so long as they are placed in an appropriate sterile nutrient medium and supplied with air or oxygen. This method is now in general use, under the designation tissue-culture, for the study of the life processes of cells. For prolonged observation of growing tissues it is found necessary not only to keep the medium strictly aseptic but to renew it frequently—both with the object of supplying fresh nutriment and for the sake of removing waste products of metabolism.

Alexis Carrel, examining the movements of leucocytes by the kinematograph, found that while most throw out pseudopodia resembling those of *Amoeba*, the large monocytes show an undulating motion of the clear outer layer (ectoplasm). He was also able to observe a similar movement in the histiocytes occurring in connective tissue.

Some interesting observations have recently been made by Chambers and Grand on the chemotactic action of various substances and tissues on white cells.

The technique consisted in making a tissue culture of either an organ containing large numbers of leucocytes (*e.g.* spleen) or the white cells themselves of the buffy coat of centrifugalized blood. A fine capillary tube containing the test substance or tissue was next placed with its open end about 0.5 mm. from the explant.¹ The behaviour of the white cells was then observed with the microscope.

Under these conditions it was found that certain substances were positively chemotactic, the white cells migrating towards, and actually entering the tube to form a plug therein. Such substances comprised many sugars, including glucose and l  vulose, glycogen, starch grains, gum arabic and agar agar. The presence of plasma or serum was essential for this reaction, which did not occur if the cultures were made in Tyrode's solution (a modified form of Locke's fluid).

Substances that were negatively chemotactic comprised salt solutions, olive oil, and particles of carbon, glass and quartz. The results indicate that substances insoluble in water or unaffected by the action of enzymes did not attract the leucocytes.

The effects of placing tissues or body fluids in the tube were particularly interesting. Thus, normal muscle or normal peritoneal fluid were negatively chemotactic. But muscle mechanically injured by mincing or fluid obtained after irritating the peritoneum strongly attracted the polymorphs. So likewise did muscle infected with *Staphylococci*.

¹ This is the current name for the minute fragment of tissue under cultivation.

LESSON VII.

STRATIFIED, PAVEMENT AND GLANDULAR EPITHELIA AND SECRETING GLANDS.

1. MOUNT a drop of saliva and examine first with a low, afterwards with a high power. Observe the nucleated, scaly epithelium-cells, some single, others adhering together by overlapping edges. Sketch one or two on the flat and edgeways. Notice the salivary corpuscles, which are migrated white blood-corpuscles swollen by imbibition of the water of the saliva. Numerous bacteria are also always to be seen.

2. Make a permanent preparation of squamous epithelium as follows: scrape the inside of the cheek with the handle of a scalpel; then make a smear on a clean slide and allow to dry; fix in formaldehyde vapour (1 minute), then in absolute alcohol (1 minute). Stain with hæmatoxylin and eosin. Mount in balsam.

NOTE: Large cells with central nucleus; also incidental bacteria.

3. Put a small shred of human epidermis into a drop of strong caustic potash solution (35 per cent.) for five minutes. Then break it up in water with needles, cover, and examine. Observe the now isolated swollen scales.

4. Study the arrangement of the cells in a section through a stratified epithelium, such as that of the mouth, skin, or cornea. Notice the changes in shape of the cells as they are traced towards the free surface. Count the number of layers of cells. Look for mitoses in the deeper layers. Human palmar or plantar skin fixed in Susa and stained in hæmatoxylin and eosin makes a satisfactory preparation.

5. The minute structure of epithelium-cells and their nuclei, both at rest and dividing, is studied in sections of the skin of the newt's tail, in shreds of peritoneum of salamander-tadpole, or amnion of rat, or in sections of the salamander- or frog-tadpole. If tadpoles are fed with thyroid gland for two or three weeks, the mitoses are very numerous. The preparations may be stained either with Ehrlich's hæmatoxylin or iron-hæmatoxylin (see Appendix).

Sketch a cell with resting nucleus, and others with nuclei in different phases of karyokinesis.

6. The simple saccular skin-glands of Amphibia may be studied in sections of the newt's skin.

An epithelium has the following characters:—

1. The cells are generally arranged as an expansion covering a free surface, but may be disposed to form solid masses, as in the liver.

2. They lie close together, the cement-substance between the cells being small in amount.

3. The cells, or, if in more than one layer, those of the lowermost stratum, rest on a layer of homogeneous substance. This is the *basement membrane*, which intervenes between the epithelium and the underlying connective tissue of which it forms the superficial stratum.

The structure of epithelium-cells, and the changes which they undergo in division, are well seen in the epidermis of the newt or of the salamander-tadpole (fig. 72); the cells and nuclei being much larger in these animals than in mammals.

An epithelium-cell consists, like other cells, of *cytoplasm* and *nucleus*. The cytoplasm either may look granular, or may have a reticulated appearance, or may exhibit fibrils. The nucleus is spherical or ovoid. Usually there is only one, but there may be two. The cell-substance is often modified in its chemical nature ; its external layer may become hardened to form a sort of membrane, or the whole cell may become horny (keratinised) ; or there may be a special material in the form of well-marked granules or globules within

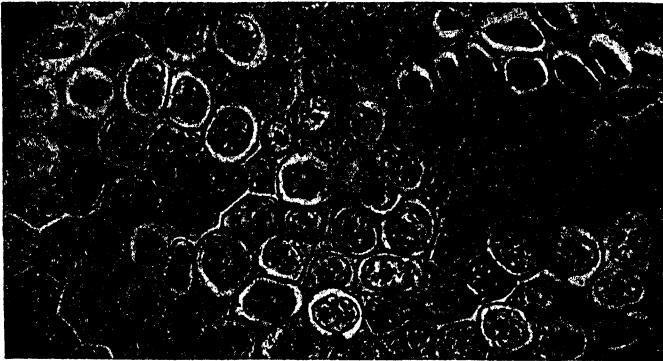


FIG 72.—EPIDERMIS-CELLS OF A LARVAL SALAMANDER. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 400. Photograph.

Some of the cells are undergoing division. Intercellular channels are seen in parts.

the cell—material which is ultimately discharged and used by the organism, as occurs in secreting glands.

The following table shows the types of epithelia and the more important sites where they are found in man and the monkey.

SIMPLE.

Pavement.—Peritoneum and pleura ; alveoli of lungs ; covering of glomerulus of kidney and the lining of its capsule (fig. 73 ; 1).

Cubical.—Small ducts of digestive glands (*e.g.*, salivary glands and liver). Also the smallest respiratory ducts (2).

Columnar.—Alimentary canal (stomach to rectum, inclusive) (3).

Pseudo-stratified columnar.—Largest ducts of digestive glands (4).

Ciliated columnar.—Respiratory ducts—except the smallest and the largest ; many parts of the male and female genital tracts (5).

Pseudo-stratified ciliated columnar (6)

Glandular.—Many glands, including liver, mammary, sweat and sebaceous glands ; also endocrines—thyroid, pituitary, etc. (7).

COMPOUND.

Transitional.—Urinary tract (8).

Stratified squamous (non-cornified).—Buccal cavity, œsophagus, anus, cornea (9).

Stratified squamous (cornified).—Skin (10).

Stratified columnar.—Membranous segment of male urethra (11).

NOTE.—The terms in the above table are, in many cases, self-explanatory (e.g., ciliated, glandular, etc.). But in some cases explanation is necessary.

Pavement epithelium is composed of flattened cells, larger and broader than they are high; in *columnar epithelium* the opposite obtains; the height of the cells exceeds their other dimensions.

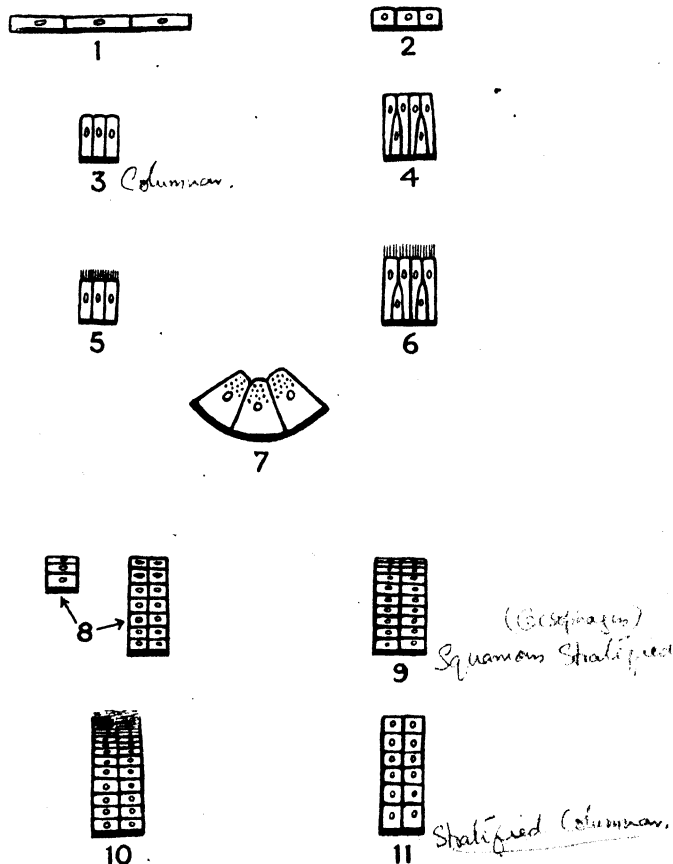


FIG. 73.—DIAGRAM OF THE DIFFERENT TYPES OF EPITHELIA.
(E. H. Leach.)

The term *cubical epithelium* is self-explanatory.

In nearly all (if not in all) epithelia the cells lie upon a homogeneous sheet known as the *basement membrane*. *Simple epithelia* are those in which all the cells lie in contact with the basement membrane, whereas in *compound epithelia* it is only the lower cells which do so; in other words, these epithelia have more than one cell-layer. *Pseudo-stratified epithelia* are those in which, although all the cells are in contact with the basement membrane, not all

the cells abut on the surface of the epithelium. A *stratified squamous epithelium* is composed of many layers of cells, a *transitional epithelium* of only a few.

The differences between the types of epithelia are schematically shown in fig. 73.

Although all epithelia receive nerves, blood-vessels or lymphatics hardly ever penetrate between the cells except in the case of the endocrine glands.

When different types of epithelium come in contact the transition may be abrupt, as at the junction of the cardia and cesophagus, or gradual as in the passage of the urinary bladder to the skin.

A physiological classification according to the function of the epithelium may also be used. We should then include under the term *protective epithelia*, the pavement, stratified and transitional varieties; under the term *secreting epithelia*, the cubical, columnar¹ and glandular epithelia (some of the pavement epithelia would come also under this head); while *ciliated epithelium* would form a separate division, as in the classification usually adopted.

PROTECTIVE EPITHELIA.

Stratified epithelium (fig. 74) covers the anterior surface of the cornea, lines the mouth, pharynx (lower part), cesophagus, anal canal and part of the

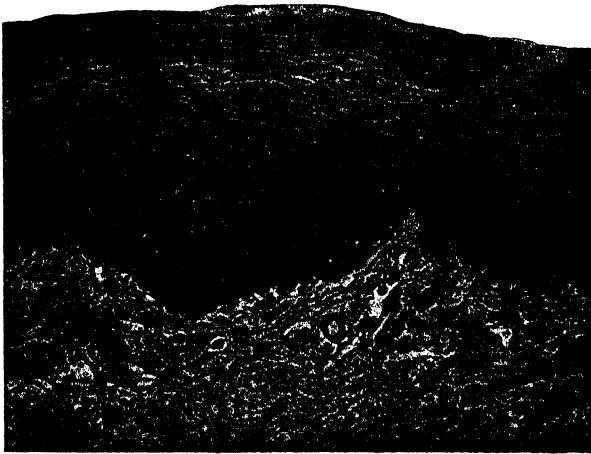


FIG. 74.—SECTION OF STRATIFIED EPITHELIUM FROM FAUCES OF RABBIT. Magnified 240 diameters. Photograph.

urethra, and forms the epidermis which covers the skin. The vocal cords are covered by stratified epithelium. In the female it lines the vagina and covers the os uteri. The cells nearest the surface are always flattened and scale-like, whereas the deeper cells are polyhedral, and those of the

¹ The columnar epithelium of the intestine is concerned as much with absorption as with secretion, but absorption may be regarded as a kind of reversed secretion.



FIG. 75.—SECTION OF EPIDERMIS OF CAT'S FOOT, SHOWING INTERCELLULAR CHANNELS, WITH BRIDGING FIBRILS. (Kolossow.)

deepest layer are somewhat columnar in shape. Moreover, the deep cells are soft and protoplasmic, and are separated from one another by a system of intercellular channels, which are bridged across by numerous fibrils passing from cell to cell (figs. 75, 76), giving the cells, when separated, the appearance of being beset with short spines (*prickle-cells*). The fibrils are traceable through the cell-substance and from cell to cell, so that the cells are held firmly together and there is difficulty in isolating them. According to Shapiro some fibrils are confined to each cell and have a concentric arrangement. The fibrils are enlarged as they cross the intercellular spaces.

Bridging fibrils have also been described in the pavement epithelium of Descemet's membrane at the back of the cornea.

The deeper cells multiply by karyokinesis. The newly formed cells tend as they enlarge to push those superficial to them nearer to the surface, from

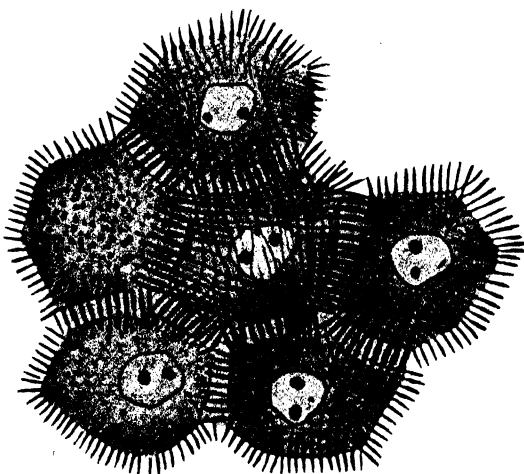


FIG. 76.—FIBRES IN DEEPER LAYER OF EPIDERMIS. (Del Rio-Hortega.)
Highly magnified.

which they are eventually thrown off. In certain situations (*e.g.*, the integument) the cells approach the surface, become keratinised, and in the

case of the epidermis lose their nuclei and the appearance of distinct cells ; this can, however, be in a measure restored by the action of alkalis (§ 3). Such keratinised epithelia tend to be dry. The cast-off superficial cells of the stratified epithelium of the mouth, which are seen in abundance in the saliva (§ 1), are less altered than those of the epidermis, and the remains of a nucleus are still visible in them (fig. 77). The stratified epithelium of the



FIG. 77.—DISSOCIATED EPITHELIUM CELLS FROM THE INSIDE OF THE MOUTH.
(H. M. Carleton.) $\times 290$.

One of the cells is folded at its edge ; both have bacteria (bacilli and cocci) adherent to them.

human epidermis shows many peculiarities ; these will be considered when the skin is dealt with.

The name **transitional epithelium** is given to a stratified epithelium consisting of only three or four layers of cells. It occurs in the upper part of the urethra, in the urinary bladder, the ureter, and the pelvis of the kidney. The superficial cells (fig. 78) are large and flattened ; they often have two nuclei. Their free surface is covered with a cuticular stratum, and on their

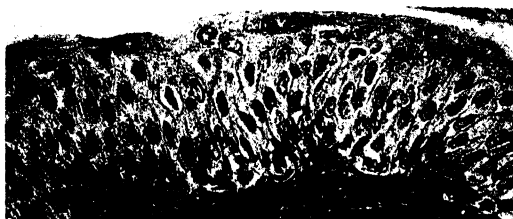


FIG. 78.—TRANSITIONAL EPITHELIUM OF URINARY BLADDER OF MONKEY.
(H. M. Carleton.) $\times 280$.

under surface they exhibit indentations, into which fit the rounded ends of pyriform or columnar cells, which form the next layer. Next to this come one or two layers of smaller polyhedral cells. The epithelium is renewed by mitotic division of the deeper cells. It is possible that the superficial cells also multiply ; if so, the division of their nuclei is amitotic.

The capacity of the bladder varies enormously with the amount of urine accumulated within it and the shape of the epithelium-cells is influenced by the resulting distension. When it is fully distended all the cells appear greatly flattened ; when it is empty, all except the surface cells become elongated. The

number of cell-layers is also very variable, becoming fewer as the organ is increasingly distended. Probably the best differential criterion is that the superficial cell-layers are less flat in transitional than in stratified epithelium.

In some animals, such as the cat, the superficial cells are very large, with numerous indented facets into which the cells of the second layer fit; in others, as in man, they are much less extensive and have only one or two facets.

Endothelium and pavement epithelium are found in the alveoli of the lungs, in the ducts of the mammary glands, in the kidney (in the tubes of Henle,

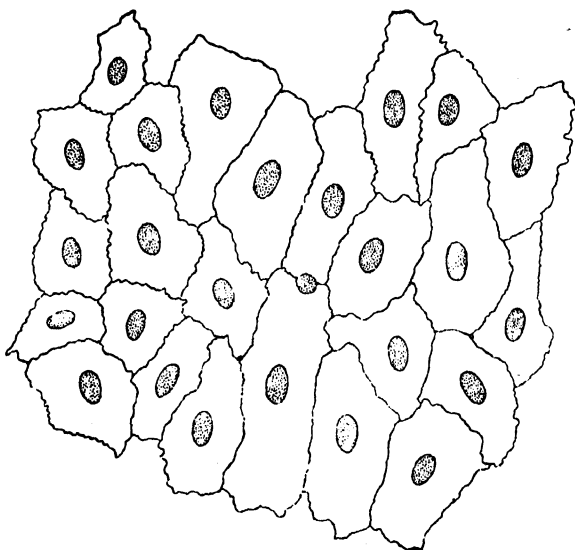


FIG. 79.—PAVEMENT EPITHELIUM (ENDOTHELIUM) OF A SEROUS MEMBRANE.
SILVER NITRATE PREPARATION. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
The nuclei have been stained with carmalum.

also lining the capsules of the Malpighian body, and covering the glomeruli), lining the cavities of serous membranes (fig. 79), the interior of the heart, blood-vessels, and lymphatics, and covering the membrane of Descemet at



FIG. 80.—ENDOTHELIUM-CELLS OF SEROUS MEMBRANE IN PROFILE VIEW,
SHOWING PROTOPLASMIC BRIDGES STRETCHING ACROSS THE INTER-
CELLULAR SPACES. (M. Heidenhain.)

the back of the cornea of the eye. When occurring on internal surfaces, such as those of the serous membranes, blood-vessels, and lymphatics, such a lining is spoken of as **endothelium**. The cells of a serous epithelium have a striated border consisting of what looks like a fine pile of closely set hairlets on their free surface, somewhat like that which is found on columnar cells and resting on a thin homogeneous layer. The homogeneous layer also occurs in the endothelium of the blood-vessels, but the pile of hairlets is found only in the

endothelia of serous membranes, at least in mammals (Kolossow). The cells are connected with one another by intercellular bridges (fig. 80).

In female Amphibia cilia are developed on parts of the peritoneal epithelium (Klein).

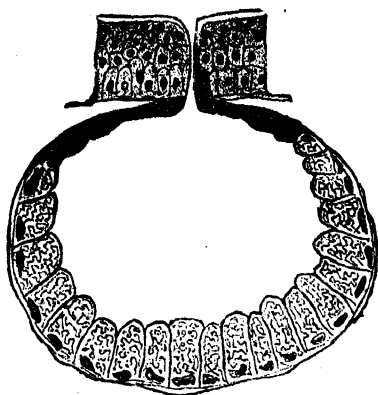
GLANDULAR EPITHELIUM.

Glandular or secreting epithelium is the essential tissue of all the organs which are known as *glands*, of which there are two chief kinds, known respectively as *externally* and *internally secreting glands*.

I. Externally secreting or exocrine glands.—These are furnished with a duct which ramifies in all parts of the gland and by its means the products of the secretory activity of the gland-cells are brought to a free surface. Such glands have been developed as involutions of the surface upon which they open; their epithelium is continuous with that of this surface, and in some cases, especially where the surface upon which the gland opens is covered with columnar epithelium, is of a similar character to that epithelium. In other cases it is different in character from the epithelium of the surface, becoming altered as we trace the duct back into the recesses or *alveoli* of the gland, and it is in these that the characteristic glandular cells, which are generally polyhedral in shape, are found. Every such involution or ingrowth of epithelium to form a gland is, when first formed, of a simple character, shaped either like a flask or test-tube and filled with a solid mass of cells, but it presently becomes hollowed out, some of the cells being left as a lining to the connective-tissue basement membrane which bounds the involution. The gland may remain simple and unbranched (*simple saccular* and *simple tubular glands*, fig. 81, I. and II.), or it may branch again and again until a complicated structure, in some cases small, in others of considerable size, is produced (*compound tubular* and *compound saccular (racemose) glands*) (fig. 81, III.; IV., V.); instances of these are furnished by the kidneys and salivary glands respectively. The cells which furnish the secretion of the gland and which line the secreting parts of the tubules of a tubular gland, or the enlargements (*alveoli*, *acini*) at the ends of the ducts of a racemose gland, are often partly or wholly filled with granules or globules (fig. 82). These accumulate in the cell in the intervals of secretory activity, but become discharged or dissolved and pass into the secretion during activity. Secreting glands are always abundantly supplied with blood-vessels and nerves. The blood-vessels are brought to the alveoli in the connective tissue which holds together the alveoli and the groups of alveoli or lobules of the gland; the nerves are supplied partly to the blood-vessels and ducts and partly to the secreting epithelium-cells.

The liver differs from other externally secreting glands in being composed of solid masses of cells instead of tubular glands or saccular alveoli lined by epithelium. It exhibits also other important differences in the nature of its blood supply and the relation between the blood and the liver-cells.

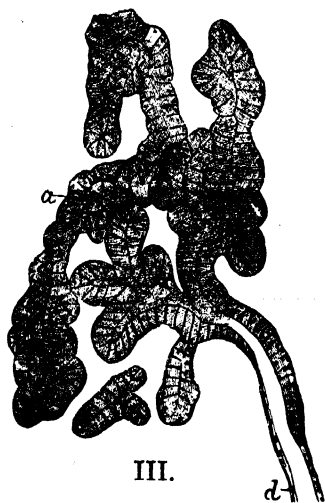
II. Internally secreting or endocrine glands.—These are not furnished with ducts and were formerly classed with the spleen and lymphoid structures



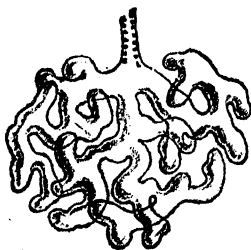
I.



II.



III.



IV.



V.

FIG. 81.—VARIOUS KINDS OF GLANDS.

I. Simple saccular gland from amphibian skin (Flemming). II. Simple tubular gland from intestine (Flemming). III. A small racemose gland with a simple duct, *d*, into which a number of irregularly tubular acini, *a*, open (Klein). IV. Part of a tubulo-racemose gland with the acini unravelled (Flemming). V. Wax model of a small tubulo-racemose gland from the epiglottis (Maziaraki).

as *ductless glands*. But the true endocrine glands are, like the externally secreting organs, composed of epithelial cells, sometimes grouped in solid masses (as in the suprarenal), in other cases disposed around hollow vesicles (thyroid) which become filled with the material of the secretion. Since there is no duct in these glands the secretion is carried into the blood either directly by the blood-vessels of the gland or indirectly through the lymphatics.

In the great majority of glands, whether exocrine or endocrine, the secretion appears within the cells as granules or fluid globules, which are

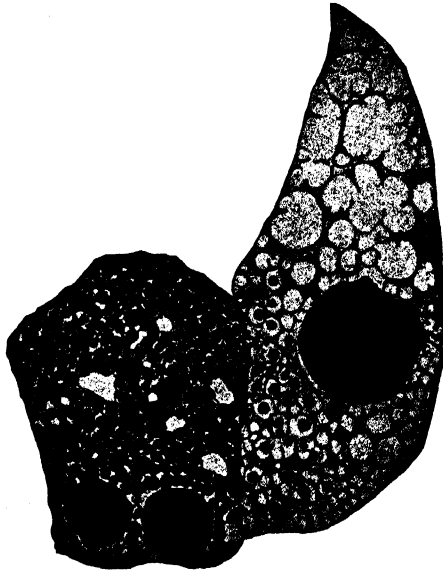


FIG. 82.—TWO CELLS FROM A CUTANEOUS GLAND OF SALAMANDER-LARVA, SHOWING SECRETION GLOBULES OR GRANULES. (Gurwitsch.)

The left-hand cell, which has two nuclei, is filled with granules. In the right-hand cell they are becoming swollen and dissolved.

extruded during secretory activity. But in some externally secreting glands (e.g., the sebaceous and mammary glands) the cells themselves undergo a varying amount of disintegration during secretion, sometimes the whole cell (as in sebaceous glands), sometimes only the free part (as in the mammary gland), becoming disintegrated and dissolved or suspended in the secreted fluid.

The detailed study of glandular epithelium and of other epithelial structures may be reserved until the organs in which they occur are described, but columnar and ciliated epithelia will be dealt with in the next lesson.

The *hairs* and *nails* and the *enamel* of the teeth are modified epithelial tissues. They will be described with the skin and mouth respectively.

LESSON VIII.

COLUMNAR AND CILIATED EPITHELIA : ACTION OF CILIA.

1. BREAK up in dilute glycerine a shred of epithelium from a minute piece of the mucous membrane of intestine (frog), that has been treated with 1 per cent. osmic acid for some hours, and has subsequently macerated in thymol water or in 33 per cent. alcohol for a few days. The cells easily separate on tapping the cover-glass. The cover-glass may be at once fixed by gold size.

2. Remove the jaw of a pithed frog, thereby exposing the gullet. Tease a small fragment of the epithelium in 0.6 per cent. saline on a slide. Cover and examine. Note the cilia, often briskly beating.

3. Examine sections of (a) columnar, (b) ciliated columnar, (c) cubical and (d) pseudo-stratified columnar epithelium. Suitable sites for obtaining these are : a, upper part of small intestine ; b, a medium-sized bronchus ; c, thyroid gland ; d, trachia (usually pseudo-stratified) or olfactory mucosa. If human material be difficult to obtain in a satisfactory state of preservation, these specimens may be taken from the cat, dog or monkey. Fix in Susa ; stain in hæmatoxylin and eosin.

COLUMNAR AND CUBICAL EPITHELIUM.

Columnar epithelium occurs extensively in the body, lining the ducts of glands and covering the inner surface of mucous membranes. These are



FIG. 83.—ORBITAL GLAND OF RABBIT, SHOWING CUBICAL EPITHELIUM LINING THE ALVEOLI.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 300$.



FIG. 84.—SECTION OF PART OF AN INTESTINAL VILLUS (CAT), SHOWING COLUMNAR EPI-
THELIUM-CELLS COVERING THE FREE SURFACE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 400$.

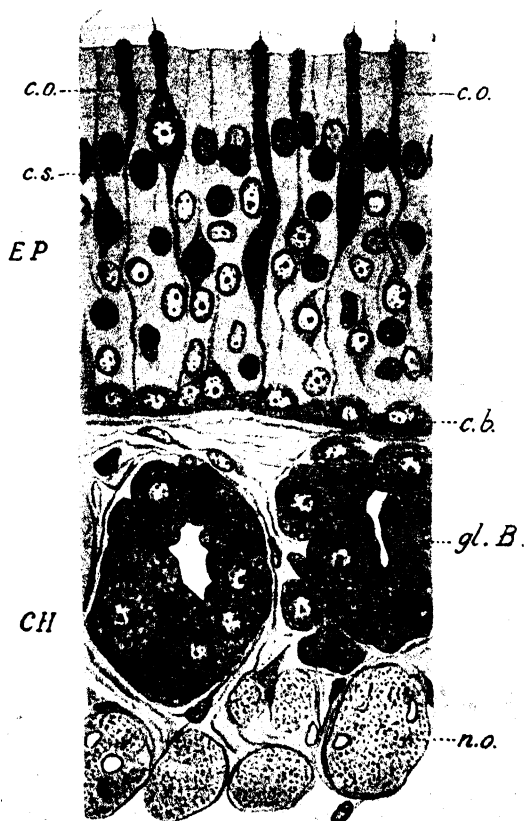


FIG. 85.—STRATIFIED COLUMNAR EPITHELIUM OF OLFACTORY MUCOSA.
(After P. Bouin.) $\times 900$.

membranes moistened by *mucus* and they line passages in communication with the exterior, such as the alimentary canal, the respiratory and generative passages.

The cells of a columnar epithelium generally form a single layer, varying in thickness according to the length of the constituent cells. When the cells are short, the epithelium is spoken of as **cubical** (fig. 83). The cells are prismatic columns, which are set closely side by side, so that when seen in surface view a mosaic appearance is produced, the intercellular or cement substance forming a network around their ends ('Kittleisten' of German authors). They often taper somewhat towards their attached end, which is generally truncated, and set upon a basement membrane. In the cells lining the intestine, the free surface is covered by a thick striated border

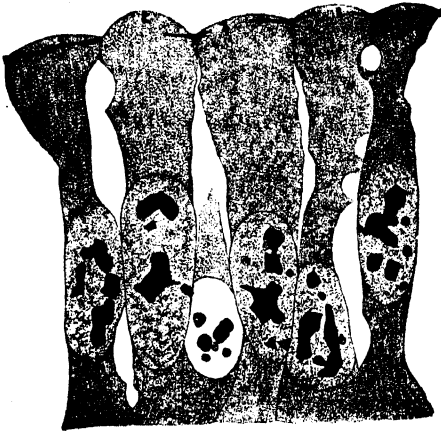


FIG. 86.—COLUMNAR EPITHELIUM-CELLS FROM DUCK EMBRYO, EACH CONTAINING A DIPLOSOME (DOUBLE CENTRIOLE) AT THE FREE BORDER. (M. Heidenhain.) Highly magnified.

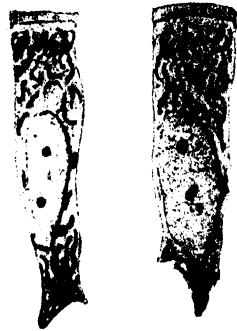


FIG. 87.—TWO COLUMNAR EPITHELIUM-CELLS OF INTESTINE, STAINED TO SHOW THE MITOCHONDRIA. (Champy.)

(figs. 84, 87, 92) which may sometimes become detached in teased preparations, and has the appearance of a dense mass of cilia. The protoplasm of the cell exhibits fibres, vacuoles or granules according to the method which has been used for fixation. It contains numerous mitochondria, usually filamentous (fig. 87). Between the striated border and the protoplasm is a highly refractile disk, in the middle of which is a double centriole (diplosome) looking like a minute dumb-bell set vertically (fig. 86). A Golgi apparatus lies between the nucleus and the free end of the cell (fig. 92). The nucleus is ovoid and usually has two nucleoli. The lateral borders of the cells are often irregular or jagged, due to the presence of amœboid leucocytes, which are generally found between the columnar cells.

Pseudo-stratified columnar epithelium is usually found in the trachea; it is also well seen in the olfactory mucosa (fig. 85). In this type of epithelium there is more than one layer of cells, the latter not being all in contact with the basal membrane.

Columnar epithelium-cells are found lining the whole of the interior of the stomach and intestines : they are also present in the ducts of most glands, and sometimes also in their secreting tubes and saccules. The epithelium which covers the ovary is also of a modified columnar shape, but cells possessing the striated border and other structural peculiarities above described occur only in the alimentary canal and in certain of its diverticula.

CILIATED EPITHELIUM.

Ciliated epithelium is found in man throughout the whole extent of the air-passages and their prolongations, but not in the uppermost part of the nostrils, supplied by the olfactory nerves, nor in the lower part of the pharynx, nor in the terminal bronchioles and pulmonary alveoli. Ciliated epithelium also occurs in the Fallopian tubes or oviducts and the greater part of the uterus ; in the efferent tubes of the testicle ; in the ventricles of the brain, and the central canal of the spinal cord. The cells may be only one layer deep, but in the trachea there is a second or basal layer from which the ciliated cells may be regenerated. The ciliated cells are usually columnar in shape (fig. 88). In place of the striated border met with in the ordinary columnar cells, such as those found in the intestine, the free surface is surmounted by a bunch of fine tapering filaments (*vibratile cilia*), which, during life, move spontaneously to and fro, and serve to produce a current in the fluid which covers them. The border upon which the cilia are set has a bright appearance in the living condition : after fixation it appears formed of little juxtaposed *basal particles* to each of which a cilium is attached.

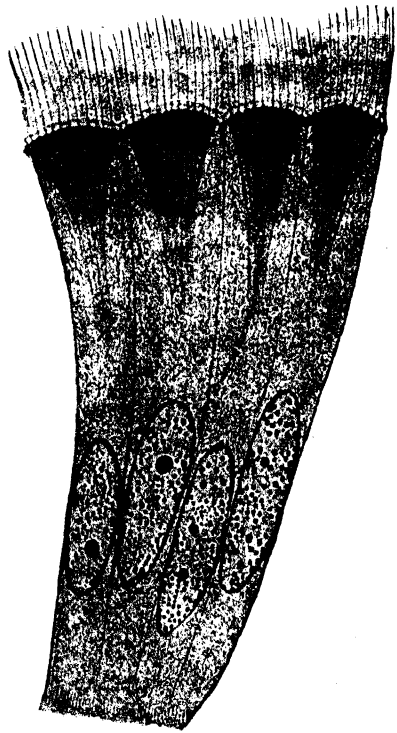


FIG. 88.—FOUR CILIATED CELLS.
(v. Lenhossék.) Very highly magnified.

In the large ciliated cells which line the alimentary canal of some molluscs (fig. 88), and with less distinctness in the ciliated cells of vertebrates, the cilia seem to be prolonged through the basal particles into the protoplasm of the cell as fine varicose filaments termed *rootlets*. The nature of these has not been determined, but they resemble the fibrillar appearance seen in many cells and possibly are mere indications of lines of stress in the colloidal substance of the cytoplasm.

The axial fibril in the tail of the spermatozoon (which is undoubtedly to be regarded as a cilium) is developed in connexion with the centriole, and it seems probable that the cilia of an ordinary ciliated cell may also be outgrowths from the multiplied centriole. Corroboration of this is found in the epididymis of the rabbit, where there are both ciliated and non-ciliated

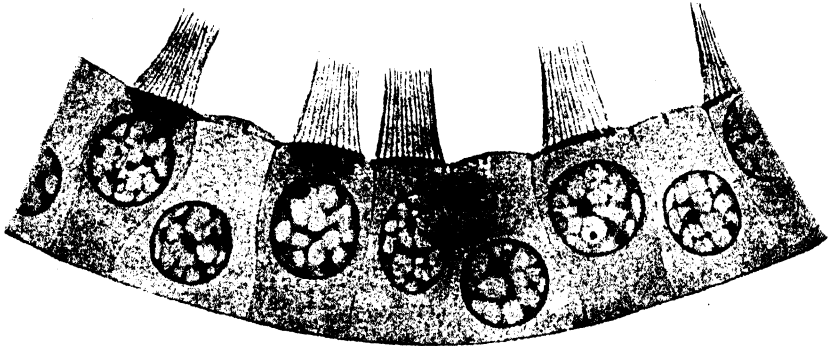


FIG. 89.—CILATED AND NON-CILATED CELLS FROM EPIDIDYMIS OF RABBIT.
(v. Lenhossék.) Very highly magnified.

cells; the latter have a double centriole (diplosome), whilst the ciliated cells have no centriole, but a series of basal particles, which, it is believed, have been formed by multiplication of the original centriole (fig. 89). In the renal epithelium of the salamander-tadpole there is a centriole near the free border of each cell, with a single cilium attached to it (fig. 90). But it would appear that cilia are not always developed from centrioles. In plant spores, which have no centrioles, the cilia are said to be developed from amœboid processes, of the cytoplasm.

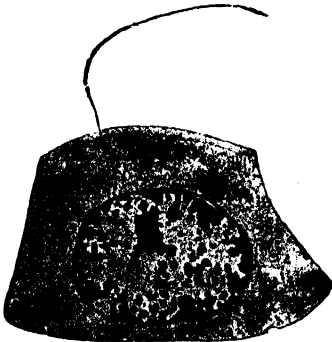


FIG. 90.—A RENAL EPITHELIUM-CELL OF SALAMANDER-TADPOLE, WITH CENTRIOLE AND CILIUM.
(Meves.)

Basal particles like those of ciliated cells are also found in columnar cells (p. 89); they have been thought homologous with those of the ciliated cell, the bunch of cilia of the latter being perhaps represented by the striated border of the columnar cell, which looks very like a bunch of cilia although showing no ciliary movement. But the columnar cell contains an ordinary centriole, whereas the ciliated cell does not.

Cilia are remarkable in that they appear to beat permanently during life. Their movement has also been observed many hours after death.

The action of cilia.—When in motion a cilium is bent quickly over in one direction with a lashing whip-like movement, immediately recovering itself. In the effective direction it is stiff, in moving backward it is limp. When vigorous the action is so rapid, and the rhythm so frequent (ten or more times in a second), that

it is impossible to follow the motion with the eye. All the cilia upon a ciliated surface are not in the same phase of action at the same instant, but the movement travels in waves over the surface (fig. 91). If a cell is detached from the general surface, its cilia continue to act for a while, but their movement at once ceases if they are completely detached from the cell, and if a ciliated cell (of the frog) is



FIG. 91.—DIAGRAM TO SHOW THE MANNER IN WHICH CILIARY MOVEMENT PASSES IN WAVES OVER A CILIATED SURFACE. (Verworn.)

merely pierced by a fine glass point, so that the protoplasm undergoes coagulations the cilia cease to act (Chambers and Rémy).

The rhythm is slowed by cold and quickened by warmth; but heat a few degrees above body temperature kills the cells and stops the action. The presence of calcium is essential for ciliary movement. It will continue for about an hour in water deprived of oxygen. CO_2 , ether vapour and chloroform vapour arrest



FIG. 92.—FIVE COLUMNAR CELLS AND ONE GOBLET-CELL FROM THE SMALL INTESTINE OF THE CAT. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 1000$.

a, goblet-cell; b, columnar cells; c, connective-tissue cells; m, basement membrane.

A Golgi apparatus is visible in each cell, and there are also indications of mitochondria at the free and attached poles of the columnar cells.

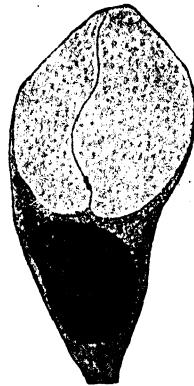


FIG. 93.—GOBLET-CELL OF SALAMANDER-LARVA, WITH A DIPLOSOME IN THE MUCIN-CONTAINING PORTION OF THE CELL. (Joseph.)

A fibril is prolonged from each of the two centrioles forming the diplosome.

the movement; but it recommences on restoring air, if the action of those agents, especially of chloroform, is not too prolonged. Very dilute alkaline solutions quicken the activity of cilia, or may even restore the movement shortly after it has ceased.

It is probable (Gray) that ciliary movement is not due to displacement of hydrostatic pressure from the cell to its cilia, as has been previously supposed. The evidence indicates that movement is generated in the cilium itself—probably as

the result of localised changes in the distribution of water.¹ In other words, the cilium can absorb more water on one side than on the other, the net effect, in Gray's view, being comparable to the curling of a strip of paper after moistening one side.

Most cilia are independent of nerves, but in the freshwater snail the cilia around the mouth can be set in activity by stimulating the nerve-fibres passing to that part. It is stated that the cilia lining the œsophagus of the frog can be accelerated or retarded in their movements by stimulation of the vagus and sympathetic nerves, either directly or through the action of hormones and drugs.

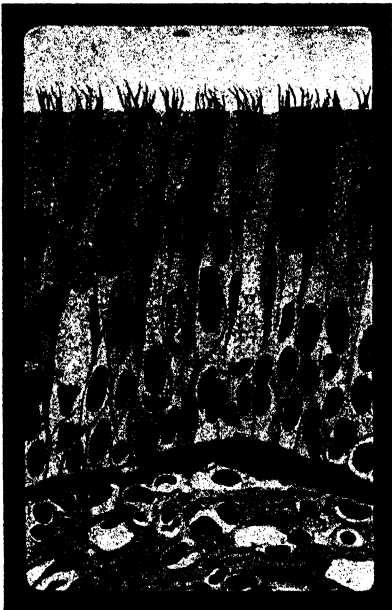


FIG. 94.—HUMAN NASAL MUCOSA. (After Bouin.) $\times 900$.

Note the alternation of ciliated and goblet cells.

(From Bouin *Éléments d'Histologie*—Felix Alcan, Paris.)

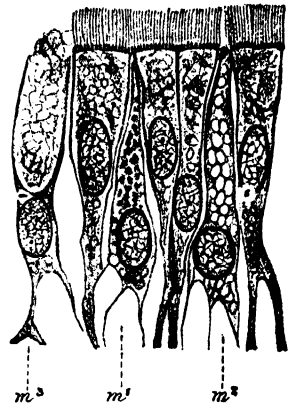


FIG. 95.—CILIATED EPITHELIUM FROM THE TRACHEA OF THE RABBIT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Magnified about 1000 diameters.

m^1 , m^2 , m^3 , indicate mucin-secreting cells (between the columnar ciliated cells) in three stages of mucin-formation.

Goblet or chalice cells.—Some of the cells of columnar and ciliated epithelia (fig. 92), which lie between the ordinary cells of the tissue, and occasionally cells in glandular and transitional epithelia, secrete mucin, which is laid down within the cell in the form of granules or globules of mucin (figs. 94, 95). The granules eventually swell up to form globular masses which clump together and greatly distend the part of the cell nearest the free border. When the mucin is extruded as mucus the free part of the cell becomes emptied and the cell then takes the form of a goblet or chalice, hence the above name. The nucleus always lies near the attached end of the cell, in the stem of the goblet. The centriole or diplosome lies between the nucleus and the free border (fig. 93). The Golgi apparatus lies towards the base of the goblet (fig. 92) in cells distended with mucus.

¹ For a discussion of this subject see Gray, *Ciliary Movement* (Cambridge, 1928). Also Heilbrunn, *General Physiology*, 1937.

It has been shown that granules of mucin are formed in the region of the Golgi apparatus. The material of the latter is not apparently used up in the production of mucin, being dislocated towards the base of the cell by the accumulated secretion products. Inflammation causes passage of water through the cells; the mucus is thereby dissolved and discharged through the open mouths of the goblet cells. The latter are developed from the ordinary columnar elements at the bases of the crypts (H. W. Florey).

It has recently been shown (R. D. Wright and H. W. Florey) that stimulation of the nervi erigentes of the cat's colon causes a discharge of mucus.

There is also evidence (E. S. Duthie) that the first appearance of the granules precursory to the formation of mucin occurs in the region of the mitochondrial group at the base of the cell. These granules then migrate into the area of the Golgi apparatus.

The *goblet-cells*, or, as they may be appropriately termed, *mucus-secreting cells*, are not mere temporary modifications of the ordinary columnar and ciliated cells amongst which they are found, but permanently differentiated cells, and they may therefore be regarded as unicellular glands. After having got rid of their mucin by extrusion, they again form a fresh supply in the same way as before. In the gastric mucous membrane all the surface epithelium is composed of mucus-secreting cells, and here they extend also a certain distance into the tubular glands. In the small intestine they occur here and there between the ordinary columnar cells covering the general surface and the villi, and also between those lining the crypts of Lieberkühn. In the large intestine most of the cells both of the surface and in the glands are goblet-cells. Goblet-cells also occur abundantly amongst the cells of some ciliated epithelia, such as that of the trachea.

LESSON IX.

AREOLAR TISSUE : ADIPOSE TISSUE : RETICULAR TISSUE.

1. TAKE a little of the subcutaneous tissue of a rabbit or guinea-pig and spread it with needles on a dry slide into a large thin film. Keep the centre moist by occasionally breathing on it, but allow the edges to dry to the slide. Before commencing put a drop of salt solution on a cover-glass, and now invert this over the film, which should be a good deal larger than the cover-glass, so that the thinned-out edges remain dried on to the slide. Examine with a high power. Sketch one or two bundles of white fibres and also one or two elastic fibres, distinguishable from the former by their sharp outline, isolated course, and by their branching. Sketch also one or more connective-tissue cells. Next carefully remove the cover-glass and replace it after adding a drop of dilute acetic acid (1 per cent.). Watch the effect. The white fibres become swollen, whilst the elastic fibres and corpuscles come more clearly into view. Look for constricted bundles of white fibres.

2. Make another very thin film in the same way, but allow it to dry completely. Fix it in formalin vapour for a few minutes. (A few drops of strong (40 per cent.) formalin at the bottom of a slide jar will do this.) Place in absolute alcohol for another minute, then into a slide jar of orcein for half an hour. Rinse in acid alcohol and take down to water. Then stain for five to ten minutes in Van Gieson. Dehydrate rapidly, clear in xylol and mount in dammar. Elastic fibres are stained dark brown to black; collagen fibres, red; other elements (*e.g.*, muscle, red blood-corpuscles), yellow.

3. *Scharlach R.* Make a film from fatty connective tissue and do not spread so thin that adipose cells are ruptured. Fix in formaldehyde vapour (one minute), wash in 70 per cent. alcohol (one minute), stain in a saturated solution of Scharlach R in 70 per cent. alcohol (ten minutes). Wash in 70 per cent. alcohol, then water. Stain with hæmatoxylin (five minutes) and mount in glycerine.

Fat red; nuclei blue.

4. Spread out another film of connective tissue, letting its edges dry to the slide, but, as before, keeping the middle part moist by the breath. Place on its centre a large drop of 1 per cent. nitrate of silver solution. After five minutes wash this away with distilled water, and expose on white paper to direct sunlight until slightly brown. Now remove the water with blotting-paper, allow the film to dry completely, and mount it in dammar. Sketch the outlines of some of the cell-spaces which are displayed.

5. Examine sections of dermis fixed in Susa and stained with orcein and Van Gieson. Note the difference in appearance in collagen and elastic fibres in film preparations and sections respectively.

The term **connective tissue** includes *areolar*, *elastic*, *reticular*, *adipose*, and *fibrous tissues* and also *cartilage* and *bone*.

All the connective tissues have certain features in common:

- (i) They are developed from the same blastodermic layer—the mesoderm.

- (ii) The intercellular substance tends to be highly developed (in contrast with epithelia).
- (iii) Fibres are often found in the intercellular substance.
- (iv) Transitions between the different varieties are common in places where they come into contact.

The functions of connective tissue are largely mechanical. Adipose tissue, although mainly concerned with metabolism, is grouped with them because it is often associated with areolar tissue.

Of the varieties of connective tissue above enumerated three are so intimately allied that they may be described together, for they are composed of exactly the same elements, and differ only in the relative development of those elements: these three are the *areolar*, *elastic*, and *fibrous* tissues. Areolar tissue being the commonest and, in a sense, the most typical, its structure will be described first.

AREOLAR TISSUE.

Areolar tissue presents to the naked eye an appearance of fine transparent threads and laminae which intercross in every direction with one another, leaving intercommunicating meshes or areolae between them. When

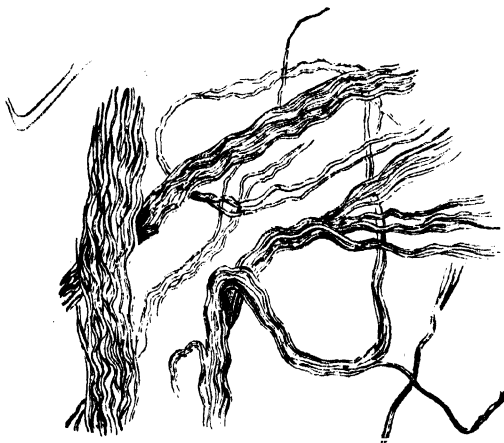


FIG. 96.—WHITE FIBRES OF AREOLAR TISSUE. (W. Sharpey.)

The bundles of white fibres are partly unravelled.

examined with the microscope, these threads and fibres are seen to be principally made up of wavy bundles of exquisitely fine transparent fibres (*white fibres*, fig. 96). The bundles run in different directions, and may branch and intercommunicate with one another (fig. 100); but the individual fibres, although they pass from one bundle to another, never branch or join other fibres. The fibres are cemented together into the bundles by a clear substance containing mucin, and the same material in a semi-fluid

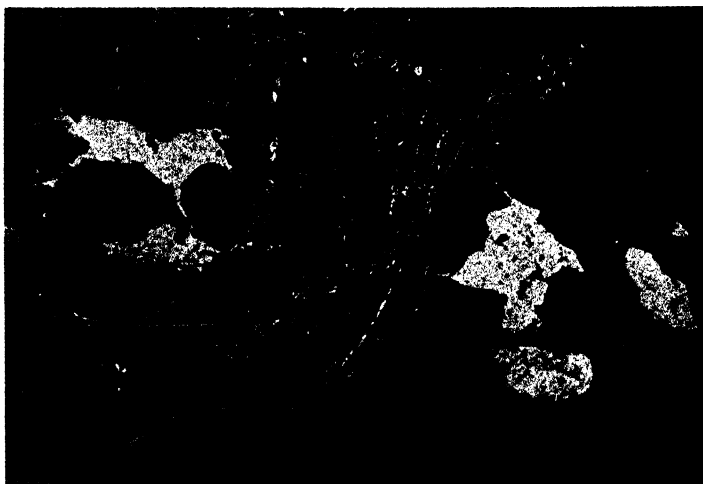


FIG. 97.—AREOLAR TISSUE IMPREGNATED WITH SILVER NITRATE. $\times 400$.

Thick bundles of connective-tissue fibres and very fine, branching elastic fibres are indistinctly visible in the ground-substance.



FIG. 98.—AREOLAR TISSUE FILM STAINED WITH ACID FUCHSIN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
 $\times 400$.

Only the elastic fibres and the nuclei of the connective-tissue cells are shown.

condition forms also the basis or *ground-substance* of the tissue, in which the bundles themselves course, and in which also the cells of the tissue lie embedded. This ground-substance between the bundles can with difficulty be seen in the fresh tissue on account of its extreme transparency; but it can be brought to view by treatment with silver nitrate (§ 4). The whole of the tissue is thereby stained a yellowish-brown colour, with the exception of the spaces occupied by the cells (*cell-spaces*, fig. 97). This reaction is due to the presence of chlorides in the intercellular substance.



FIG. 99.—FILM PREPARATION OF SUBCUTANEOUS CONNECTIVE TISSUE. (H.M.C.) $\times 100$.
e, elastic fibres, fine and branching; after being stretched they often recoil to form the characteristic loops or spirals seen at x; c, bundles of relatively coarse collagen fibres.

Besides the white fibres of connective tissue above described, fibres of a different kind (figs. 98 and 99) occur; these are the *elastic fibres*. They are especially well seen after treatment with acetic acid, and also after staining with acid fuchsin or orcein; but they can be detected in fresh preparations mounted in normal saline. They are characterised by their distinct outline, their straight course, the fact that they do not run in bundles, but singly, and that they branch and join neighbouring fibres. If broken by the needles used in teasing, the elastic recoil causes them to curl up, especially

near the broken ends. Besides these histological differences, the two kinds of fibre differ also in their chemical characters. Thus the white fibres are formed of a material (*collagen*) which is dissolved by boiling in water, forming a solution of gelatine; they are also dissolved by peptic digestion, but not by tryptic; whereas the substance of which the elastic fibres are composed (*elastin*) resists for a long time the action of boiling water and peptic digestion, and is dissolved by tryptic digestion. Moreover, the white fibres swell and become indistinct under the action of dilute acetic

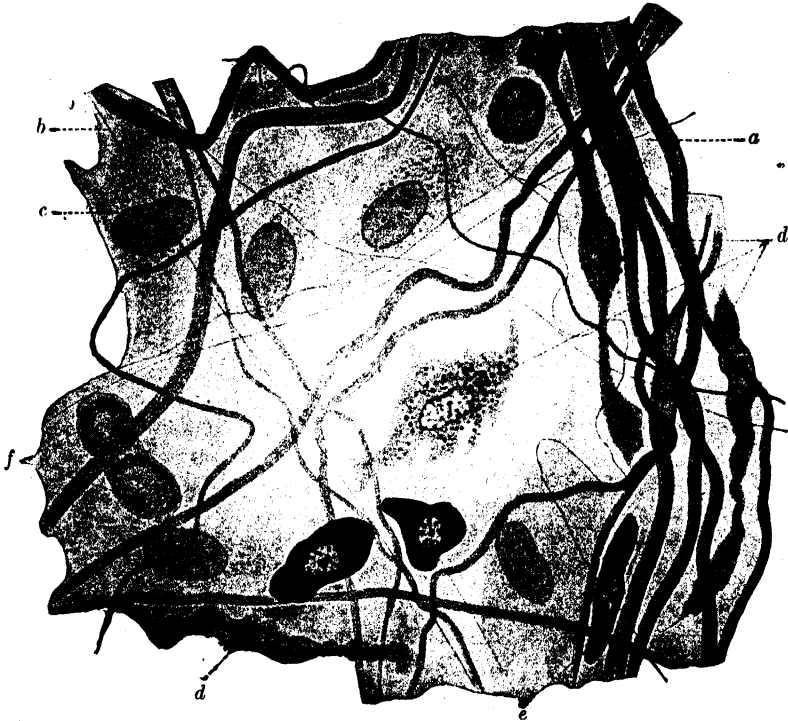


FIG. 100.—FIBRES AND CELLS OF AREOLAR TISSUE OF A GUINEA-PIG FROM A FILM-PREPARATION; STAINED WITH NEUTRAL RED. (Maximow.)

a, bundles of white fibres; b, fine elastic fibres; c, fibroblasts; d, histiocytes; e, plasma cells; f, oxyphil leucocytes.

acid; the elastic fibres are unaltered by this reagent. Elastic fibres appear to have a sheath which is more resistant to reagents than the internal part of the fibre.

Bundles of white fibres which have been swollen by acid sometimes exhibit constrictions at irregular intervals. These constrictions are thought to be due to elastic fibres coiling round the white bundles.

The cells of areolar tissue.—Areolar connective tissue contains many cells. The following types have been described:

(1) **Fibroblasts.**—These elements lie upon and amongst the fibre-bundles;

the cell-body is usually flattened (fig. 100, c) and irregular in shape, often branched; the nucleus is oval. In certain situations, as when they lie upon the surface of an aponeurosis, the lamellar cells are joined edge to edge, like cells of an endothelium (fig. 101). When branched, they come in contact with one another by their branches, as in the cornea. The formation of white connective-tissue fibres is thought to be dependent on these cells, for the fibres in question first make their appearance in the immediate neighbourhood of the fibroblasts; but the white fibres are not formed within the cell-substance, being deposited in the intercellular substance itself.

(2) **Histiocytes** or **clasmatocytes**.—These form part of the reticulo-endothelial system which has already been described (p. 57). Both in film-

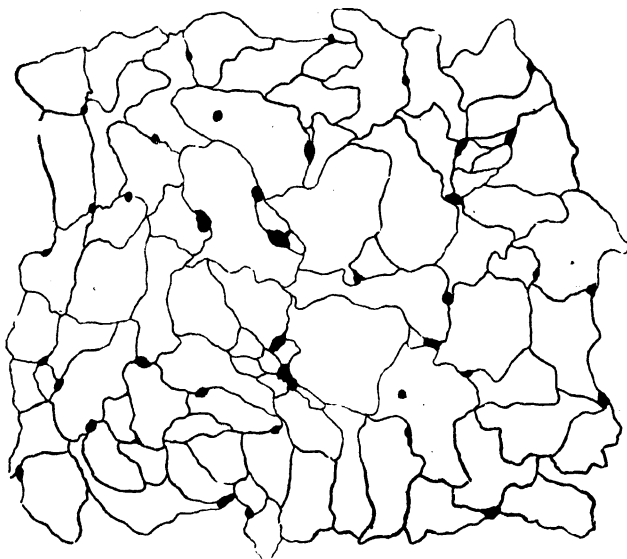


FIG. 101.—ENDOTHELIUM-LIKE CELLS OF CONNECTIVE TISSUE FROM THE SURFACE OF AN APONEUROSIS. SILVER NITRATE PREPARATION. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

preparations and sections these appear as irregularly shaped cells (fig. 100, d) with oval or spherical nuclei and basiphil cytoplasm. They are most easily identified by their tendency to take up vital stains, and by otherwise displaying active phagocytic properties. Recent work (von Möllendorff) shows that probably the fibroblast can become transformed into the histiocyte, and *vice versa*.

(3) **Basiphil cells** ('Mastzellen' of German authors).—These are usually spheroidal or ovoidal and are full of granules staining intensely with basic dyes. In general appearance the connective-tissue basicytes are like the basiphils of the blood, although their relationship to these is problematic: they are generally much larger than the blood-leucocytes. They are usually common where fat is being laid down.

(4) **Plasma-cells**.—The plasma-cell is thought to be derived from the

lymphocyte, by an increase in size. The nucleus is spherical; the chromatin is often arranged in irregular masses within it. The cytoplasm, oval or irregular, is basiphil, but without granules.

Leucocytes are normally found in small numbers in areolar tissue, whither they have migrated from the blood-stream. They are generally either lymphocytes or polymorphs.

The connective-tissue cells occupy spaces (*cell-spaces*) of corresponding shape in the ground-substance (fig. 97), lying between the bundles of white fibres. In some parts the white bundles are developed to such an extent as to pervade the whole of the ground-substance, and then the connective-tissue corpuscles become squeezed into the interstices; flattened lamellar

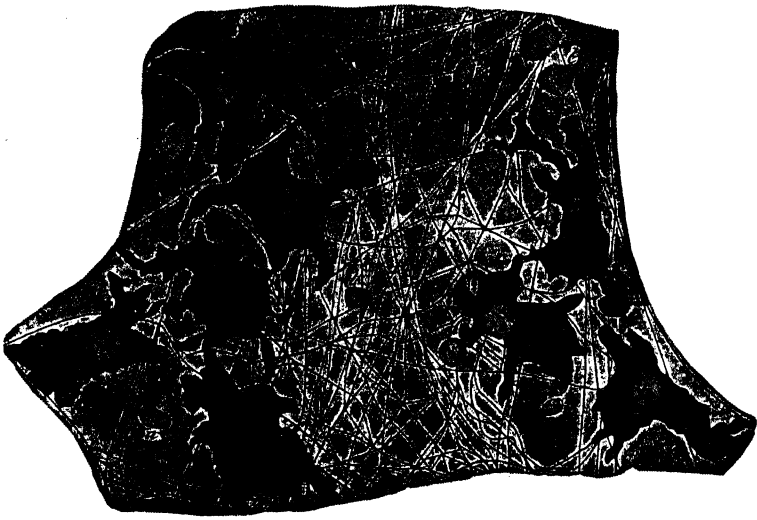


FIG. 102.—CONNECTIVE TISSUE OF CHOROID FROM THE HUMAN EYE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
Highly magnified.

The branching pigment-cells and elastic fibres are well shown; *n*, nuclei of lamellar cells; *l*, lymphocytes.

expansions of the cells extending between the bundles (as in tendon; see next Lesson).

(5) **Pigment-cells.**—In the middle coat of the eye in mammals (fig. 102) and also in certain parts of the skin, some of the connective-tissue cells are occupied by granules of pigment. Such cells are much more extensively present in lower vertebrates, especially in Amphibia and fishes, where they are either black (melanophores) or of a yellowish colour (xanthophores). The cells in question exhibit changes which result in the pigment being at one time diffused over a considerable area and at another time restricted to the immediate neighbourhood of the nucleus. The changes are produced by variations in the environment (light, moisture, etc.). Such variations cause alterations in the general shade and colour of the integument and serve the purpose of protective adaptation of the animals to their surroundings, but all pigment-cells do not exhibit the changes in question.

In those cells in which the alterations occur, the distribution of the pigment within the cell is effected by migration of the pigment-granules in the relatively fixed body (fig. 103), the granules being either heaped round the nucleus (light effect) or scattered throughout the cytoplasm (dark effect).

Not only do the pigment-cells respond to light through the agency

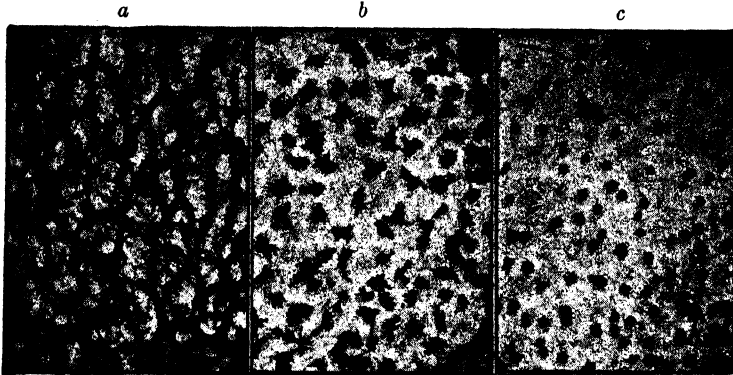


FIG. 103.—CUTANEOUS PIGMENT-CELLS (MELANOPHORES) OF FROG-WEB. (L. Hogben.)

a, from a *dark* animal, with the pigment spread out over the whole cell ; *b*, with the pigment partially retracted ; *c*, from a *pale* animal, with the pigment wholly retracted and concentrated around the nucleus of each cell.

of the nervous system, but in some animals also to internal secretions (hormones) produced within the organism. Thus in the frog's skin the pigment-granules of the melanophores are collected upon the nucleus as a result of the action of adrenaline, and cause the integument to appear light ; whereas they spread out into all the processes of the cells as a result of the action of an extract of the pars intermedia of the pituitary body, producing the effect of making the integument appear dark.

ADIPOSE TISSUE : FAT.

Adipose tissue consists of vesicular cells filled with fat (figs. 104 to 108) and collected into lobules or masses, or into tracts which accompany the smaller blood-vessels. The vesicles are round or oval in shape, except where closely packed, when they become polyhedral from mutual com-

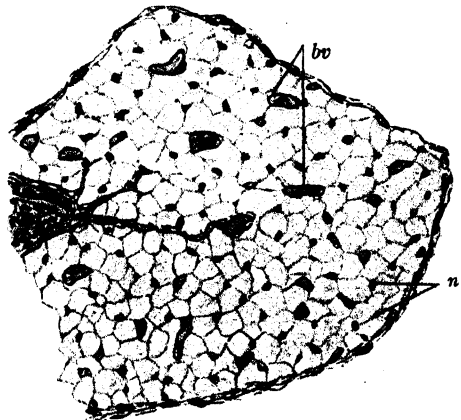


FIG. 104.—SECTION OF LOBULE OF ADIPOSE TISSUE OF YOUNG CAT. (H. M. Carleton.)
× 95.

The fat has been dissolved out of the cells, hence only the nuclei (*n*) remain ; *bv*, capillary blood-vessels.

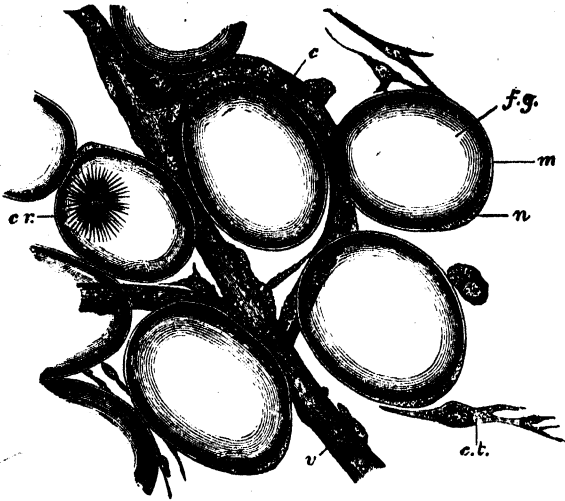


FIG. 105.—CELLS FROM THE MARGIN OF A FAT-LOBULE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
Highly magnified.

m, membrane of fat-cell consisting of cytoplasm and nucleus (*n*) and enclosing the large fat-globule, *f.g.*
cr., crystals of fatty acid; *c*, a capillary joining a venule, *v*; *c.t.*, a connective-tissue cell.

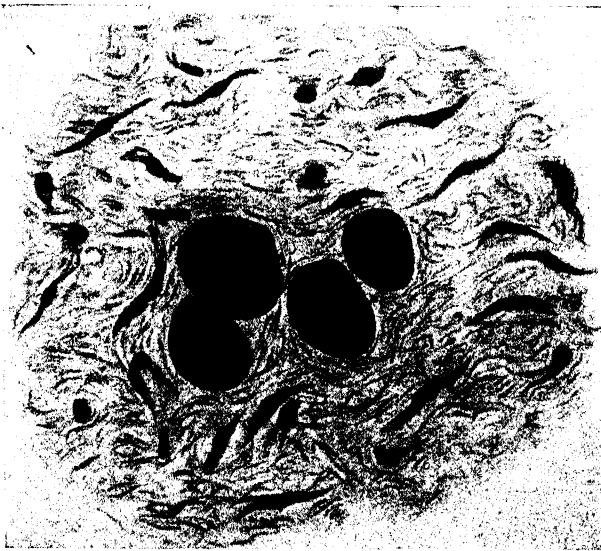


FIG. 106.—FOUR FAT-CELLS IN CONNECTIVE TISSUE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 400.

Each cell is distended by the fat-globule, to which the cell-protoplasm forms a thin envelope. The nucleus lies at one side in a somewhat larger amount of protoplasm. The fat was stained red with Sudan III and appears black in the photograph.

pression. The fat-drop is contained within a delicate protoplasmic envelope (fig. 105), which represents the cytoplasm of the cell and is thickened at one part, here including an oval flattened nucleus. The fat is stained black by osmic acid (fig. 107); a deep orange-red by Sudan III (fig. 106); and an intense red by Scharlach R. The vesicles are supported partly by filaments of areolar tissue, partly by a fine network of capillary blood-vessels.

The fat when first formed in the embryo is deposited within granular basophil cells of a spheroidal or polyhedral shape. Some authorities regard these cells as of a specific nature, for they are in certain situations collected into gland-like masses abundantly supplied with blood-vessels. Before the fat is fully formed in their cells they have a brownish colour, and if the fat is absorbed, *e.g.*, in starvation, they return to the embryonic condition. The chief of these masses lies at the back between the scapulæ.

Unless special precautions are taken fat deposits are dissolved in the process of embedding

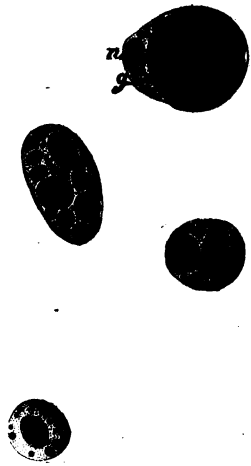


FIG. 107.—FAT-CELLS FROM YOUNG ANIMAL. OSMIC ACID PREPARATION. (Ranvier.)

The drops of fat are stained an intense black. *n*, nucleus; *g*, small globules of fat.

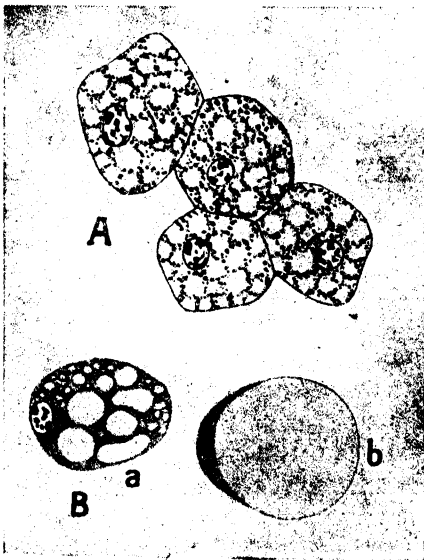


FIG. 108.—FAT-CELLS, IN THREE STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT, AS SEEN IN THE AVERAGE PARAFFIN SECTION, THE FAT HAVING BEEN DISSOLVED AND ONLY THE EMPTY SPACES LEFT. (After P. Bouin.) $\times 450$.

(By permission of Librairie Félix Alcan, Paris.)

tissues in paraffin. That is why the ordinary paraffin section gives a negative picture of fat: the latter having been dissolved leaves only the spaces in which it previously existed (see figs. 104 and 108).

Fat is, however, also laid down elsewhere in ordinary cells of connective tissue (fig. 106). This is conspicuously the case with the subcutaneous fat. It has been described as produced by a transformation into fatty droplets of granules, which may be of mitochondrial nature, and as being preceded by deposition of lipids. As the fat-droplets increase in size they run together into a larger drop, which gradually fills the cell, swelling it out more and more, so that eventually the cytoplasm remains merely as a thin envelope surrounding the fat-drop. It must be realised that histological methods do not reveal

the total amount of fat in tissues. This is because the fat is often 'masked,' i.e., combined with, or adsorbed by, the cell-proteids. By methods of chemical extraction, however, this association may be broken down. It is then found, for instance, that the renal tubules (in which fat is not normally detectable by histological means) contain 15 to 20 per cent. of fat.

Fat is found most abundantly in the subcutaneous areolar tissue, and in some deeper parts, e.g., between the scapulæ, around the kidneys, under the epicardium, at the back of the peritoneum, and in the mesentery and omentum. The yellow marrow of the bones is also principally composed of fat. There is no adipose tissue within the cavity of the cranium.

RETICULAR (RETIFORM) TISSUE : LYMPHOID TISSUE.

In reticular tissue (figs. 109, 110) the intercellular substance is largely replaced by lymph, and is traversed by a network of collagenous fibres,

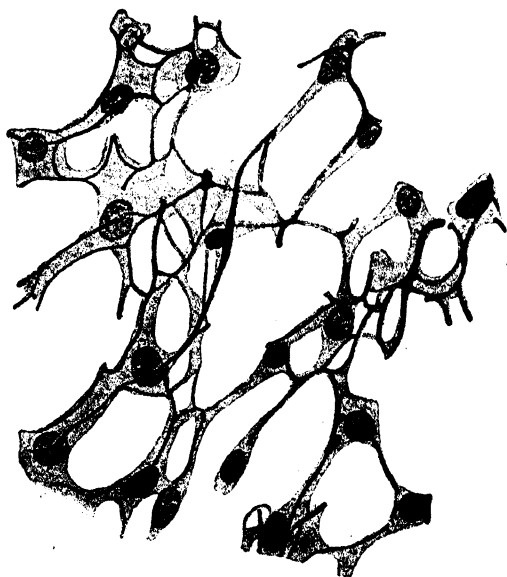


FIG. 109.—RETICULUM OF A LYMPH-GLAND, WITH ITS FIBRES OVERLAID BY ENDOTHELIAL CELLS. (M. Heidenhain.)

This furnishes a typical example of a reticulo-endothelium.

the meshes of which vary in size, being very small and close in some parts ; more open and like areolar tissue in other parts. Reticular fibres differ morphologically from collagen fibres by their tendency to anastomose freely. There are few or no elastic fibres. The fibres are often enwrapped by branched cells, the so-called *reticulo-endothelial cells*, already considered on p. 57. Chemical differences between the fibres of reticular tissue and those of ordinary areolar tissue have been described by Mall and others,

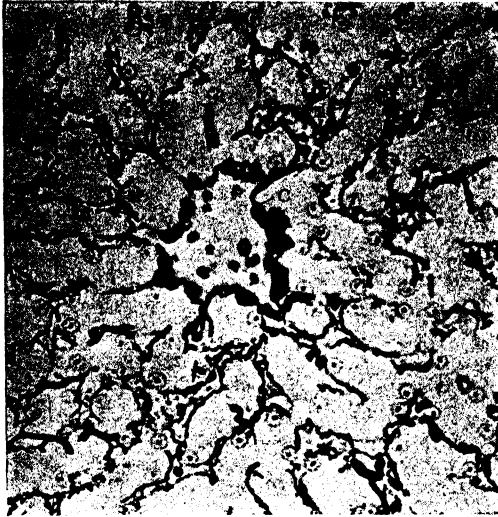


FIG. 110.—RETICULAR TISSUE OF LIVER: FOOT'S SILVER IMPREGNATION METHOD. (H.M.C.)

c, collagen fibres in continuity with the reticular fibres, *r*; *n*, nuclei of hepatic cells.



FIG. 111.—LYMPHOID TISSUE OF A LYMPH-GLAND. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

The fibres of the reticular tissue have been stained. Their conductivity with the connective-tissue trabeculae is well shown.

but it is doubtful if they are really of a different nature, and microscopically the fibres of the two are indistinguishable, being stained by the same reagents and occurring in complete continuity with one another (see figs. 110, 111). Reticular tissue forms a fine framework in many organs; supporting the proper elements and extending into the interstices between the larger connective-tissue bundles. It can be shown by dissolving the cells of the tissue by tryptic digestion and subsequently staining the fibres which form the reticulum. It occurs in lymph-glands, in the spleen, liver, bone-marrow, mucous membranes, and many other parts.

Lymphoid or adenoid tissue is reticular tissue in which the meshes of the network are largely occupied by lymphocytes (fig. 111), as in the lymph-glands and allied structures, such as the tonsils, lymphoid follicles, and Malpighian corpuscles of spleen. It will be described with those structures.

LESSON X.

ELASTIC TISSUE : FIBROUS TISSUE : DEVELOPMENT OF CONNECTIVE TISSUE.

1. TEASE out as finely as possible a small shred of elastic tissue (ligamentum nuchæ of the ox or ligamentum subflavum of man) in glycerine and water, tinged by acid fuchsin. Cover and cement the preparation. Note the large well-defined fibres constantly branching and uniting with one another. Sketch a small part of the network. Note the existence of bundles of white fibres amongst the elastic fibres.

2. Examine a thin transverse section of ligamentum nuchæ which has been fixed in Susa or 5 per cent. formol. The section is to be stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin and mounted in dammar. Observe the grouping of the fibres and their angular shape. Frequently the angles are rounded.

3. Pinch off the end of the tail of a dead mouse or rat, draw out the long silk-like tendons and put them into Ringer. Take one of the threads, which should be nearly three inches long, and stretch it along a slide, letting the ends dry firmly to the glass but keeping the middle part wet. Put a short piece of fine hair on each side and cover in salt solution. Observe with a high power the fine wavy fibrillation of the tendon. Draw. Now run dilute acetic acid (1 per cent.) under the cover-glass; watch the tendon where it is becoming swollen by the acid. Notice the oblong nucleated cells coming into view between the tendon-bundles. Sketch three or four cells in a row. Lastly, lift the cover-glass, wash away the acid with distilled water, place a drop of Delafield's hæmatoxylin solution on the tendon, and leave the preparation until it is deeply stained; then wash away the hæmatoxylin and mount the preparation in dilute glycerine.

4. For studying the development of connective tissue, sections of the umbilical cord at different periods of intra-uterine life may be used. Fix with Susa or formol. Stain with Van Gieson and hæmatoxylin.

ELASTIC TISSUE.

Elastic tissue is a variety of connective tissue in which elastic fibres preponderate. It is found in its most concentrated form in the ligamentum nuchæ (of quadrupeds) and in the ligamenta subflava of the vertebræ, but the connective tissue of other parts may also have a considerable development of elastic fibres, as in subcutaneous connective tissue. It also occurs in abundance in the walls of the bronchi, and uniting the cartilages of the larynx. It also enters largely into the formation of the lungs and of the walls of the arteries.

In the ligamentum nuchæ most of the fibres are large (fig. 112). They often exhibit cross-markings or even transverse clefts. When dragged asunder they break sharply across. They constantly branch and unite, so as to form a network. In transverse section they appear angular, but

usually the angles are rounded (fig. 113). They are separated into small groups or bundles by intervening areolar tissue.

Elastic tissue does not always take the form of fibres, but also occurs as

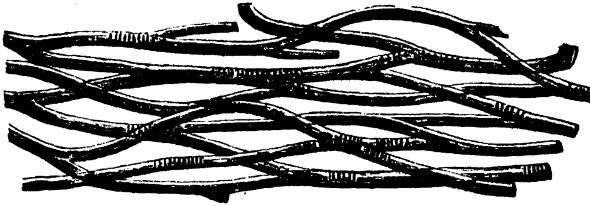


FIG. 112.—ELASTIC FIBRES FROM THE LIGAMENTUM NUCHÆ OF THE OX, SHOWING TRANSVERSE MARKINGS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 150$.

membranes (*e.g.*, in the internal elastic lamina of blood-vessels). In areolar tissue the elastic fibres may be very fine, but their microscopic and chemical characters are always well marked.

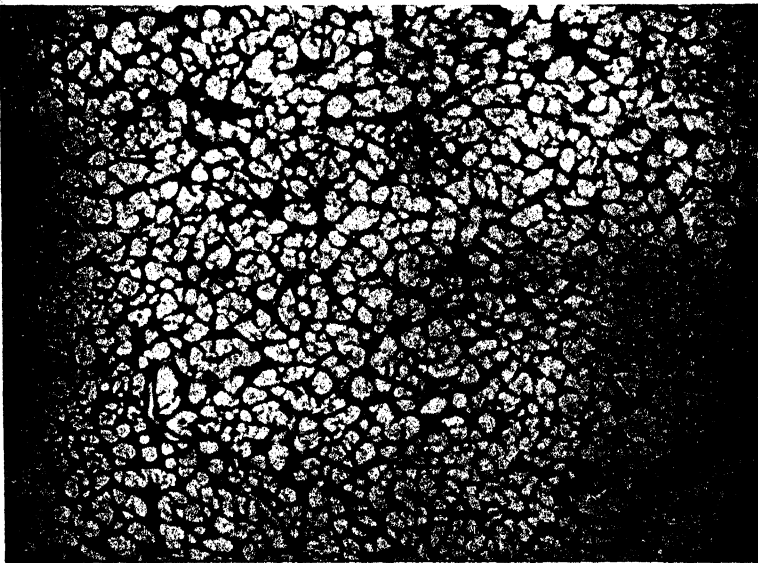


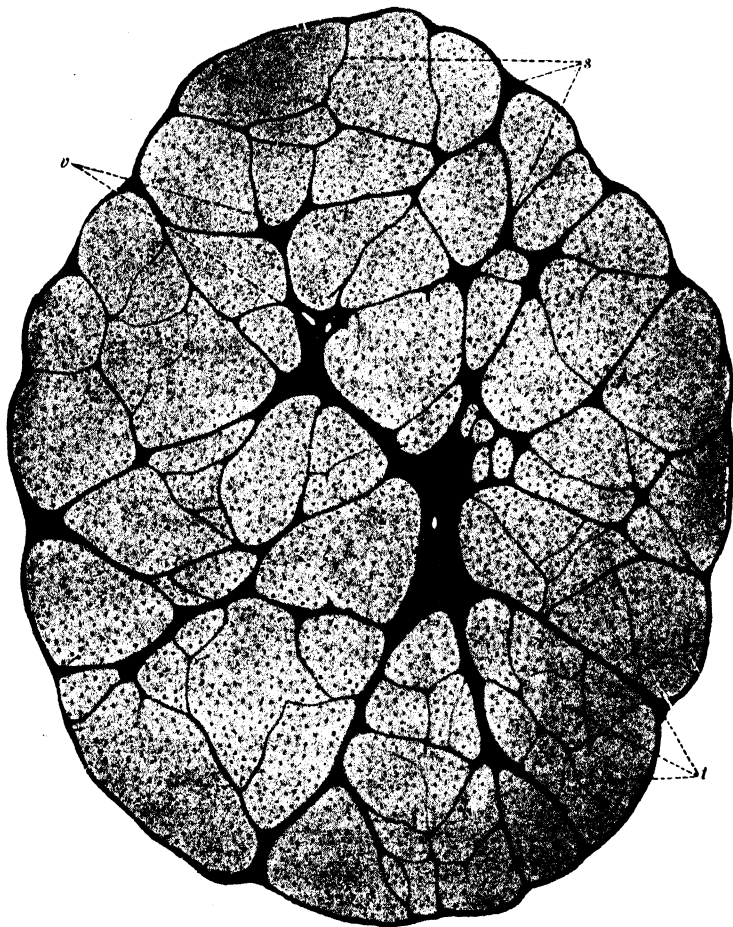
FIG. 113.—CROSS-SECTION OF ELASTIC FIBRES FROM THE LIGAMENTUM NUCHÆ OF THE OX. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.

The angles of the fibres are mostly rounded.

FIBROUS TISSUE.

Fibrous tissue is almost wholly made up of bundles of white fibres running in determinate directions. These bundles again are collected into larger bundles, which give the fibrous appearance to the tissue. The bundles are constantly uniting with one another in their course, although their component fibres remain distinct.

The interspaces between the larger bundles are occupied by areolar tissue (fig. 114, *s*; fig. 115) in which the blood-vessels, lymphatics, and nerves of the fibrous tissue are conveyed. The interstices between the smallest bundles are occupied by rows of lamellar connective-tissue corpuscles (*tendon-cells*), which, from being squeezed up between three or more bundles, become



● FIG. 114.—SECTION OF TENDON, HUMAN. (Sobotta.) $\times 32$.
t, tendon-bundles; s, septa of areolar tissue; v, vessels.

flattened out in two or three directions. In transverse section the cells look irregularly stellate (figs. 114, 115), but when seen on the flat they appear lamellar (fig. 116, A; fig. 117); from this aspect their general shape is square or oblong. They lie, as before said, in rows between the tendon-bundles; the nuclei of adjacent cells are placed opposite one another in pairs (fig. 117). The cell-spaces correspond in figure and arrangement with the cells which occupy them (fig. 116, B).

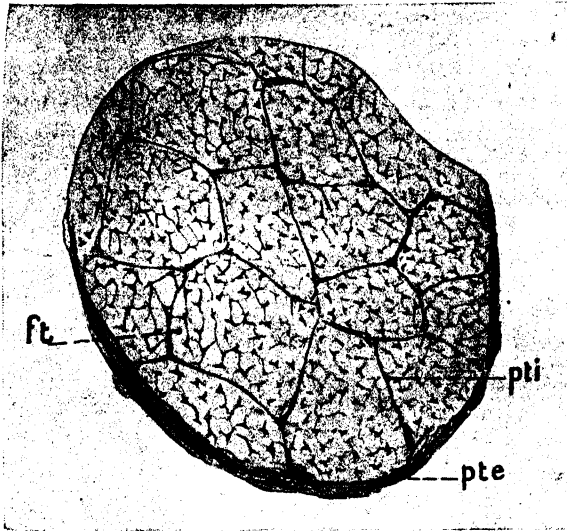


FIG. 115.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF TENDO ACHILLES OF RABBIT. (After P. Bouin.) $\times 60$.
(By permission of Librairie Félix Alcan, Paris.)

pte, sheath of tendon; *pti*, septa of tendon-bundles; *ft*, the tendon-bundles between which the darkly staining tendon-cells may be seen.

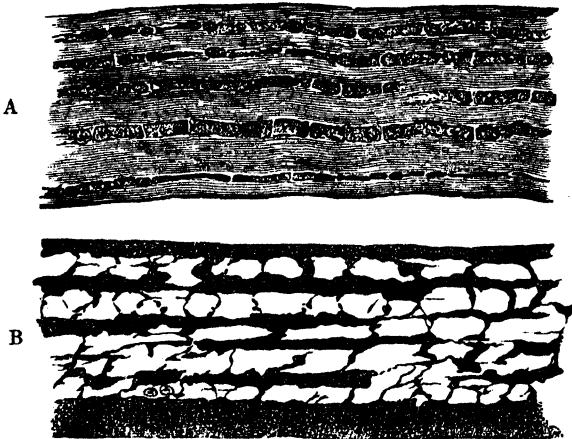


FIG. 116.—TENDONS OF MOUSE TAIL, SHOWING CHAINS OF CELLS BETWEEN THE TENDON-BUNDLES. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 175$.

A, stained with hæmatoxylin; B, stained with silver nitrate, showing cell-spaces.



FIG. 117.—EIGHT CELLS FROM THE SAME TENDON AS REPRESENTED IN FIG. 116, A. $\times 425$.

The dark lines on the surface of the cells are the optical sections of lamellar extensions directed towards or away from the observer.

Fibrous tissue forms the tendons and ligaments, and also certain membranes, such as the dura mater, the fibrous pericardium, the fasciæ of the limbs, the fibrous coverings of organs, etc. It is found wherever great strength, combined with flexibility, is concerned. It receives a few blood-vessels, disposed longitudinally for the most part, and contains many lymphatics. Both blood-vessels and lymphatics run in the areolar tissue which separates and surrounds the tendon-bundles. Tendons and ligaments also receive nerve-fibres, many of which end in localised ramifications within fusiform enlargements of the tendon-bundles (organs of Golgi), while others terminate in end-bulbs or in simple Pacinian corpuscles. These will be described with the modes of ending of nerve-fibres.

Basement-membranes or *membrana propria* are homogeneous-looking membranes, which are found forming the surface layer of connective-tissue expansions in certain parts, especially where there is a covering of epithelium, as on mucous membranes, in secreting glands, and elsewhere. They seem sometimes formed of flattened connective-tissue cells joined together to form a membrane; but in most cases (e.g., front of cornea, trachea) they are evidently formed not of cells, but of condensed ground-substance, and in yet other cases of elastic substance (back of cornea). The name basement-membrane has therefore been used to denote structures of a totally different nature.

Jelly-like connective tissue, although occurring largely in the embryo, is found only in one situation in the adult—viz., forming the vitreous humour of the eye. It is composed mainly of soft, fluid or semi-fluid ground-substance, with cells scattered here and there through it, and with fibres which interlace throughout the tissue and confine the fluid of the ground-substance within their meshes, thus conferring upon the tissue its jelly-like character. All embryonic connective tissue is at one period of this jelly-like nature.

HISTOGENESIS OF CONNECTIVE TISSUE.

Connective tissue is developed in connexion with certain cells of the mesoderm of the embryo. In those parts which are to form connective tissue there may frequently be seen a clear space separating the cell-layers which are already formed, this clear space being sometimes permeated with a network of fibres which appear to be in continuity with the cells bounding the space. Branching mesenchyme cells, which separate off from the bounding cells, are presently found forming a syncytium within the clear space (fig. 118, *m*; fig. 119). In the meshes of this syncytium is a semi-fluid intercellular substance. The connective-tissue fibres, both white and elastic, are deposited in this. The white fibres appear at first as single threads, which soon become numerous and are ultimately collected into fine bundles. The bundles gradually become larger; so that in some tissues (such as tendon) the whole ground-substance is eventually pervaded by them, and the cells of the tissue become squeezed up into the intervals. Before any considerable development of fibres has taken place, the embryonic connective tissue has a jelly-like appearance; in this form it occurs in the

umbilical cord, where it is known as the *jelly of Wharton* (fig. 120). A jelly-like connective tissue is also seen forming the marrow of embryonic bones at a certain stage of development.

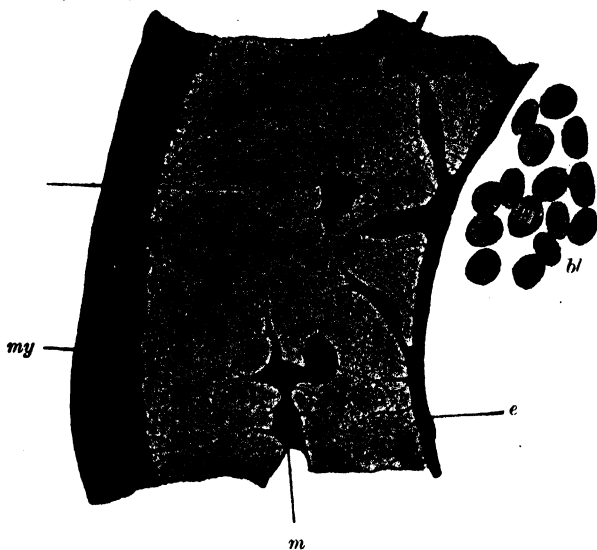


FIG. 118.—DEVELOPING CONNECTIVE TISSUE IN HEART OF CHICK-EMBRYO OF 48 HOURS. (Szily.)

my, cells forming myocardium ; *f*, jelly formed of reticulum with enclosed fluid ; *e*, endothelium ; *m*, mesenchyme cells in jelly ; *bl*, blood-corpuscles.

There has long been a difference of opinion as to the origin of the fibres of connective tissue, some Histologists holding that they are formed within the protoplasm of the cells, which gradually lose their cell-characters as

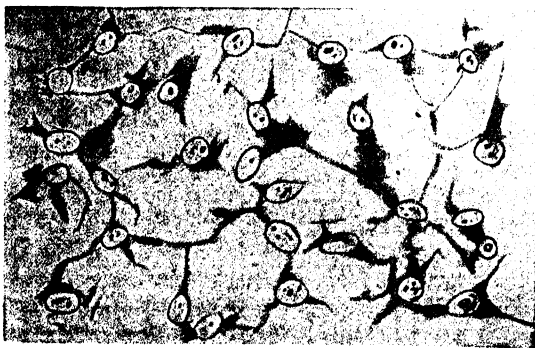


FIG. 119.—CELLS OF DEVELOPING CONNECTIVE TISSUE (MESENCHYME) UNITED TO FORM A SYNCYTIIUM. (Prenant, Bouin, and Maillard.)

No fibres are as yet developed in the intercellular substance.

fibres become developed within them ; others taking the view that the fibres, both white and elastic, are extracellular formations. While it is certain that they are produced under the influence of the cells it is probable that

both kinds of fibres are deposited in the ground-substance between the cells and not in the cell-protoplasm, so that they are rather to be looked upon

LESSON XI.

CARTILAGE AND SYNOVIAL MEMBRANES.

1. EXAMINE sections of the fresh cartilage of a joint (sheep's foot), mount them in normal saline, and examine with the high power. Observe the form and grouping of the cells. Look at the thin edge of the section for spaces from which the cells have dropped out. Measure two or three cells and their nuclei, and sketch one or two groups. Now replace the salt solution by water and set the preparation aside for a little while. On again examining it, many of the cartilage-cells will be found to have contracted, leaving a clear space between each cell and the containing capsule.

2. Study vertical sections of articular cartilage from an end of bone which has been fixed and decalcified (see Appendix), and mount the sections, after staining with hæmatoxylin and eosin, in dammar. Sketch the arrangement of the cells.

3. To study the structure of synovial membrane make longitudinal sections through an articulation of a rat or other small mammal—decalcify and stain as in § 2.

CARTILAGE.

Cartilage (*gristle*) is a translucent bluish-white tissue, firm, and at the same time elastic, and largely found in connexion with bones of the skeleton, most of which are in the embryo at first represented entirely by cartilage. Three chief varieties of cartilage are distinguished. In one, which is termed *hyaline*, the matrix or ground-substance is almost clear, and free from obvious fibres; in the other two, which are termed *fibro-cartilage*, the matrix is pervaded by connective-tissue fibres. When these are of the white variety, the tissue is *white fibro-cartilage*; when they are elastic fibres, it is *yellow or elastic fibro-cartilage*.

The matrix immediately around the cartilage-cells is often marked off from the rest by concentric lines; the part of the matrix nearest each cell, the latest formed, being known as the *capsule* of the cell. The cells, which lie in groups of two, four, eight, etc., in the matrix, are bluntly angular in form, the sides opposite one another in the groups being generally flattened (fig. 121). The protoplasm is clear; it may have droplets of fat; and with a high power fine interlacing filaments and mitochondria can be observed in it. Cartilage-cells also contain, as a rule, glycogen: this can be shown by staining with iodine. During life the protoplasm entirely fills the cavity or cell-space which it occupies in the matrix; but after death, and in consequence of the action of water and some other agents, it tends to contract away from the capsule. The nucleus is generally spherical.

The disposition of the cells of cartilage mostly in groups of two, four, eight, etc., is due to the fact that these groups have originated from the division of a single cell first into two, and these again into two, and so on. The division of the cartilage-cell, like that of most other cells, is effected by karyokinesis.

It would seem that the matrix is formed of successive portions, each being deposited around the cartilage-cell as a so-called 'capsule' (fig. 122). The newly formed portion blends in its turn with the previously formed matrix, whilst a new capsule is deposited within it. The more newly formed portions of matrix stain with hæmatoxylin more deeply than the rest; in some

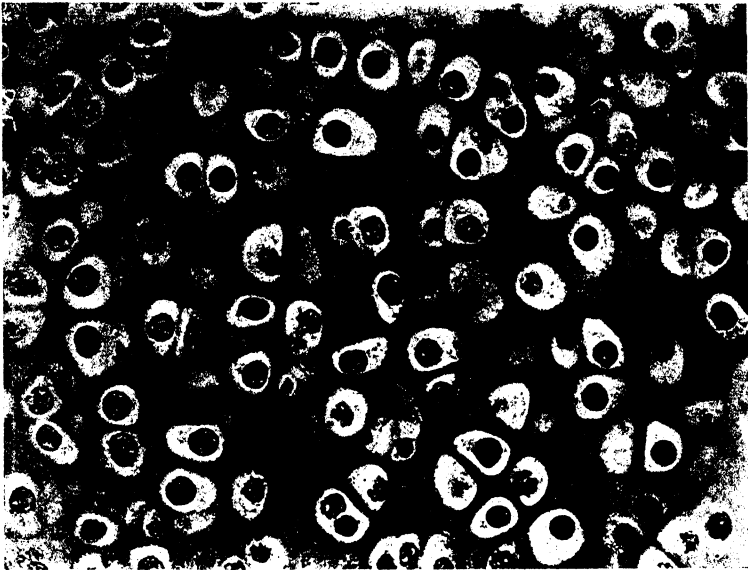


FIG. 121.—SECTION OF HYALINE CARTILAGE OF SALAMANDER. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 200. Photograph.

cartilages this gives the appearance of rounded clumps of darkly stained matter surrounding each cell, or cell-group, the so-called *chondrin-balls* (fig. 122).

Hyaline cartilage occurs principally in two situations—namely (1) covering the ends of the bones in the joints, where it is known as *articular cartilage*; and (2) forming the rib-cartilages, where it is known as *costal cartilage*. It also forms the cartilages of the nose, of the external auditory meatus (but not of the pinna), most of those of the larynx, and the cartilages of the wind-pipe and bronchial tubes, in which places it serves to maintain the shape and patency of the orifices and tubes.

By long maceration in brine, evidence of a fibrous structure may be obtained, even in the matrix of true hyaline cartilage. Some Histologists have described fine communications in the matrix uniting the cartilage-cells

with one another, but these are of doubtful occurrence in vertebrate cartilage, although they unquestionably exist in the cartilage of cephalopods.



FIG. 122.—HIGH-POWER VIEW OF SECTION OF HUMAN TRACHEAL CARTILAGE.
(After P. Bouin.) $\times 490$.

(By permission of Librairie Félix Alcan, Paris.)

Note the deeply staining capsules of the cartilage cells; also the nuclei and vesicular cytoplasmic contents of the latter,

Nutrition and gaseous exchanges between the cartilage cells and the blood-vessels of the perichondrium take place by diffusion and imbibition through the ground-substance. If the cartilage is thick, as in costal cartilage, canals carrying blood-vessels penetrate it here and there.

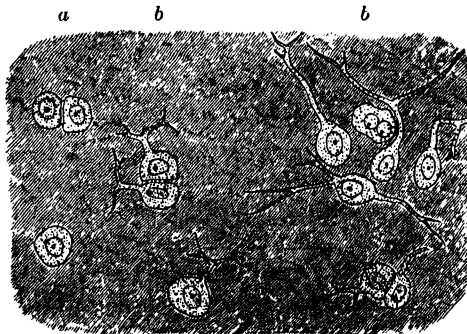


FIG. 123.—BORDER OF ARTICULAR CARTILAGE SHOWING TRANSITION OF CARTILAGE-CELLS INTO CONNECTIVE-TISSUE CORPUSCLES OF SYNOVIAL MEMBRANE. FROM HEAD OF METATARSAL BONE: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 340$.

a, ordinary cartilage-cells; b, b, with branching processes.

The cells of **articular cartilage** are generally arranged in elongated groups throughout the matrix. The latter is free from obvious fibres, except at

the extreme edge of the cartilage, where the connective-tissue fibres from the synovial membrane extend into it; and here also the cartilage-cells are often branched, and offer transitions to the connective-tissue corpuscles of that membrane (*transitional cartilage*, fig. 123).

In vertical section (fig. 124) the deeper cell groups (*c*) are seen to be arranged vertically to the surface, the more superficial ones (*a*) parallel with

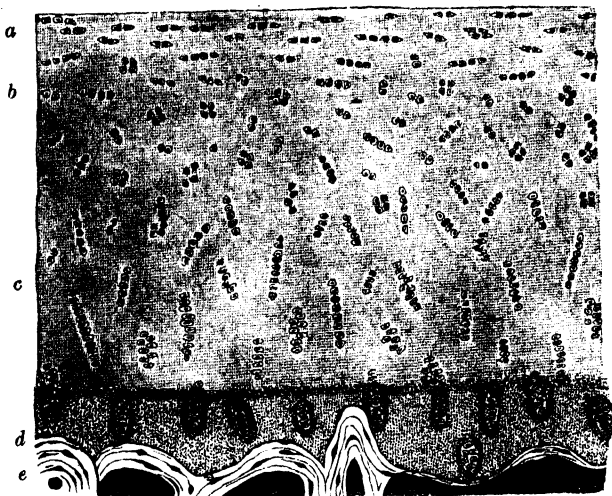


FIG. 124.—VERTICAL SECTION OF ARTICULAR CARTILAGE COVERING THE LOWER END OF THE TIBIA: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 30$.

a, cells and cell-groups flattened conformably with the surface; *b*, cell-groups irregularly arranged; *c*, cell-groups disposed perpendicularly to the surface; *d*, layer of calcified cartilage; *e*, bone.

the surface; whilst in an intermediate zone the groups are irregularly disposed (*b*). In the deepest part of the cartilage, next to the bone, there is often a deposit of calcareous salts in the matrix (*calcified cartilage*, *d*).

SYNOVIAL MEMBRANES.

Synovial membranes are connective-tissue structures occurring in connexion with articular cartilage (fig. 125) and in certain other movable parts, *e.g.*, where a tendon glides within a fibrous sheath, and at the so-called bursæ, such as that which lies between the skin and the patella. Their cells are for the most part branched connective-tissue cells, but in some places they resemble cartilage-cells, and where a synovial membrane is continuous with cartilage, transitions occur between them. Such a region is known as a *transitional zone*.

The synovial membranes are often compared with serous membranes. Like the latter they line closed cavities moistened with fluid, and the glairy fluid (*synovia*) which moistens them is probably of the nature of lymph. This fluid contains some mucin—presumably formed by the synovial membranes. Normally 100 to 300 cells—mostly monocytes and plasma cells—are

found in every cubic millimeter of the fluid. Red blood-corpuscles are also said to be normally present in it. Moreover, there is either no endothelial lining, or it occurs only in patches, in place of the continuous lining which we find in serous membranes. Long villus-like projections, simple or compound—the *Haversian fringes*—occur in some situations; they contain a few cells, with the character of cartilage-cells, surrounded by cartilage-matrix. The fringes probably serve to extend the surface for the secretion of synovia.



FIG. 125.—SECTION OF JOINT OF YOUNG RABBIT.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 50$. Photograph.

See the capsular ligament uniting the ends of the bones and lined by the thin synovial membrane in which there are folds projecting slightly into the edge of the joint.

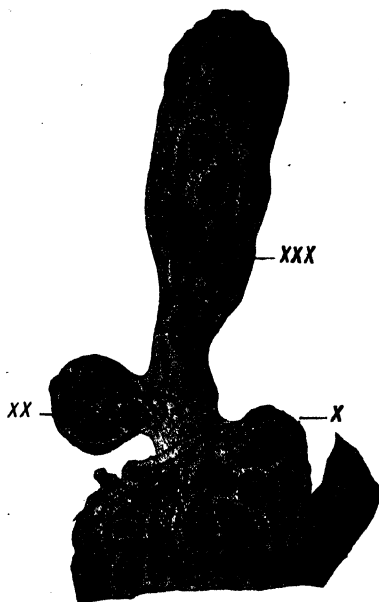


FIG. 126.—SYNOVIAL FOLD. (From Maximow-Bloom after Hammar).

XX, main portion of villus with secondary villi XX and XXX.

(By permission of The W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia, U.S.A.)

Besides the Haversian fringes and synovial villi there are often larger folds of the membrane containing fat.

The synovial membrane of a joint is not prolonged over the opposed surfaces of the articular cartilages, but ceases near the edge of these in the transitional zone already alluded to. The blood-vessels of the membrane terminate here in capillary loops. The nerves of synovial membranes end partly in peculiar end-bulbs in the substance of the membrane, partly in a fine terminal plexus close to the inner surface. Pacinian corpuscles are also found in some places.

LESSON XII.

COSTAL CARTILAGE AND FIBRO-CARTILAGE.

1. MAKE transverse and tangential sections of a rib-cartilage (young animal) which have been fixed in Susa or 5 per cent. formol. Stain the sections with hæmatoxylin and eosin. Sketch a part of a transverse section under a low power and a cell-group from one of the tangential sections under a high power. Notice especially the arrangement of the cells, somewhat concentric near the surface but radial near the centre. The costal cartilages tend as age advances to become ossified; this occurs near the middle of their thickness in some animals, but in man when ossification takes place it is the superficial layer which is first invaded.

2. Make sections of the elastic cartilage of the external ear (human or monkey). Stain with orcein and mount in dammar. The upper end of the arytenoid cartilage of the ox or calf may also be used to display the structure of elastic cartilage. So likewise may the human epiglottis. Notice the large reticulating elastic fibres in the matrix of this. Notice also the isolated granules of elastin, and around each cartilage-cell an area of clear ground-substance. If the preparation is from the ear of the mouse or rat there is very little matrix and no elastic fibres, and the cells are almost in contact (parenchymatous cartilage).

3. Cut sections of white fibro-cartilage (intervertebral disk or semilunar cartilage of knee) which has been fixed in formol and then decalcified. Stain with hæmatoxylin and Van Gieson; mount in dammar. Observe the wavy fibres in the matrix, and the cartilage-cells, sometimes branched, lying in clear areas often concentrically striated. Sketch three or four cells and the adjoining fibrous matrix.

Costal cartilage.—In the rib-cartilages (fig. 126) the matrix is not always as clear as in the cartilages of the joints, and it more often happens that fibres become developed in it. The cells are generally larger than those of articular cartilage, and collected into larger groups (fig. 127). The matrix surrounding these is stained more deeply than the rest by hæmatoxylin: often this more deeply stained part is itself separated from the rest of the matrix by a less stained area. Near the circumference, and under the perichondrium or fibrous covering of the cartilage, the cell-groups are flattened and parallel to the surface, but in the deeper parts they have a more irregular or a radial arrangement. The cells frequently contain fat-globules; this is especially so in the type of cartilage known as *parenchymatous* which is also distinguished by the relative paucity of matrix. Parenchymatous cartilage is not found in man but is present in the external ears of small mammals (mouse, rat, etc.). The cartilages of the larynx, windpipe and bronchial tubes and of the nose resemble the costal cartilages; they will be further noticed when the organs where they occur are dealt with.

Elastic cartilage.—Elastic or yellow fibro-cartilage occurs in only a few situations in man, viz., *the cartilage of the external ear and of the Eustachian*

tube, and the cartilages of the epiglottis and of Santorini in the larynx. The matrix is everywhere pervaded, except immediately around the cells and cell-groups, with well-defined branching fibres, which unite with one another

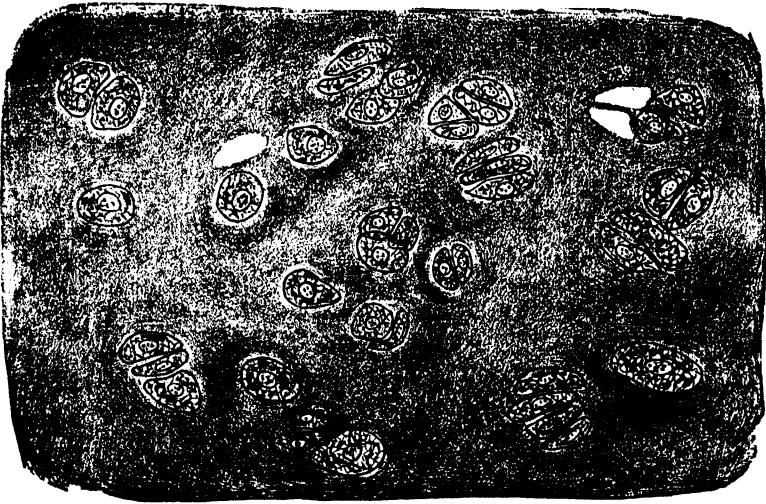


FIG. 126.—SECTION OF RIB-CARTILAGE OF CALF. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 300$.

The matrix is slightly fibrous. Two or three empty cell-spaces are seen in the section, the cells having dropped out in the course of preparation.

to form a close network (fig. 128). These fibres resist the action of acetic acid, and are deeply stained by acid fuchsin and orcein. In the ox (fig. 129)



FIG. 127.—SECTION OF COSTAL CARTILAGE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 240$.

The section shows several groups of cartilage-cells. Capsule outlines are seen around the groups and also around the individual cells. The part around the cells and cell-groups is stained more than the rest of the matrix.

they are large, but smaller in man, especially in the cartilage of the epiglottis. They appear to be developed by the deposition of granules of elastin in the matrix; the granules at first lie scattered, but afterwards become joined to

form fibres. As the name implies, elastic cartilage is very flexible, and after being bent readily recovers its original form.

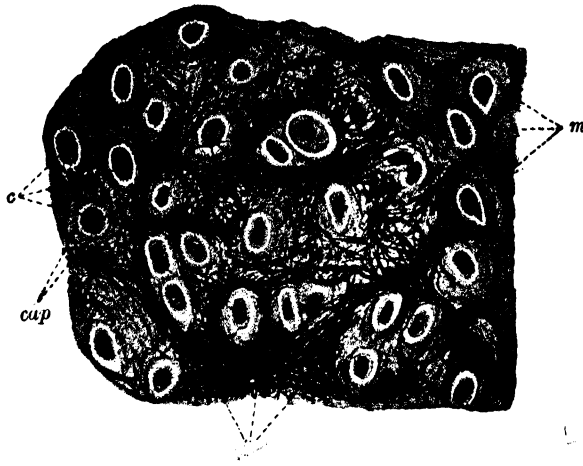


FIG. 128.—SECTION OF ELASTIC CARTILAGE OF EAR: HUMAN. (Sobotta.) $\times 280$.
c, cartilage-cells; cap, their capsules; m, clear matrix around cells and cell-groups; f, elastic fibres.

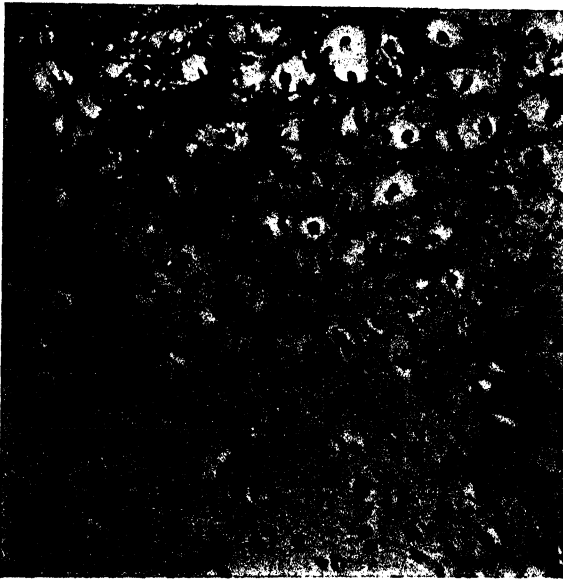


FIG. 129.—SECTION OF ARYTENOID CARTILAGE OF CALF AT JUNCTION OF HYALINE WITH ELASTIC PORTIONS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 50$. Photograph.
The section was stained with acid fuchsin.

White fibro-cartilage.—White fibro-cartilage is found wherever great strength combined with a certain amount of rigidity is required: thus we

frequently find this form of fibro-cartilage joining bones together, as in the *intervertebral disks* and other *symphyses*. In these cases the part in contact with the bone is always hyaline cartilage, which passes gradually into the fibro-cartilage forming the bulk of the symphysis. White fibro-cartilage is also found lining grooves in which tendons run, and it may be found here and there in the tendons themselves. It is employed to deepen cup-shaped articular surfaces; and in the case of the interarticular cartilages, such as those of the knee and lower jaw, to allow greater freedom of movement whilst diminishing the liability to dislocation. Under the microscope white fibro-cartilage looks very like fibrous tissue, but its cells are cartilage-cells, not tendon-cells (figs. 130, 131). They are rounded or bluntly angular and surrounded by a concentrically striated area of non-fibrous cartilage-matrix. In some parts of the intervertebral disk some of the cells are branched; these may perhaps be looked upon as transitional forms to connective-tissue corpuscles.

HISTOGENESIS OF CARTILAGE.

Cartilage is formed in the embryo from mesenchyme similar to that which gives origin to other forms of connective tissue. Each cell forms a capsule

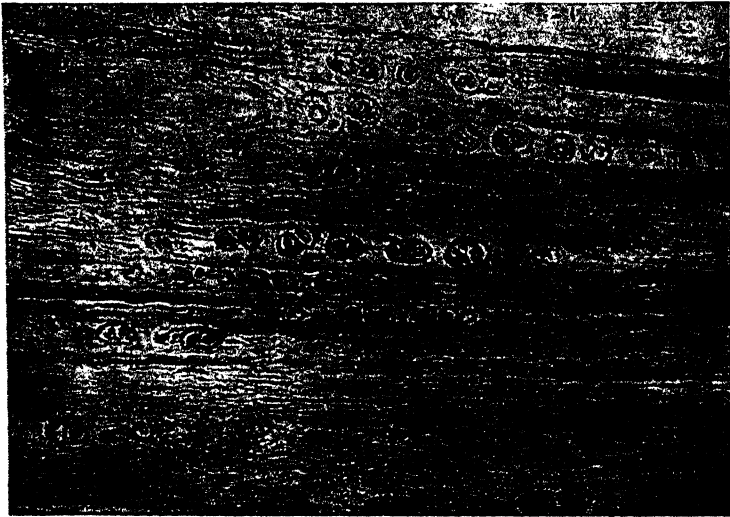


FIG. 130.—SECTION OF WHITE FIBRO-CARTILAGE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$.
Photograph.

The ground-substance is pervaded by wavy connective-tissue fibres.

around itself; the blended capsules compose the first matrix. When cartilage remains in this condition throughout life it is termed *parenchymatous cartilage*, already referred to on p. 119. Cartilage at first grows partly by interstitial expansion accompanied by cell multiplication and by formation, around and between the cells, of intercellular substance, partly by apposition at the perichondrium, the connective tissue becoming here transformed into

cartilage. At a later period of growth the increase in size and change in shape of cartilage are due almost entirely to the agency of the perichondrium. This is inevitably the case if the matrix becomes calcified.

Embryonic cartilage is usually characterised by the cells being more

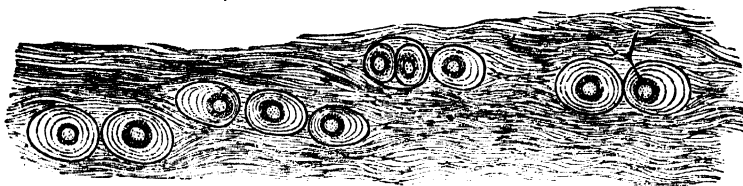


FIG. 131.—WHITE FIBRO-CARTILAGE FROM AN INTERVERTEBRAL DISK: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Highly magnified.

The concentric lines around the cells indicate the limits of deposit of successive capsules. One of the cells has a forked process which extends amongst the fibres of the general matrix beyond the hyaline area surrounding the cell.

sharply angular and irregular; in some cases they are branched, like those which occur at the junction of cartilage and synovial membrane in the adult. The cells are also more closely packed, the matrix being in relatively less amount than in later life.

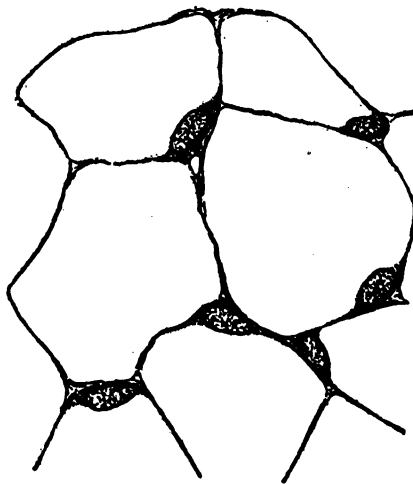


FIG. 132.—CELLS OF NOTOCHORD OF AN EMBRYO FISH, *Opsanus*. (After Dahlgren and Kepner.) During life the contents of the cells are fluid.
(By permission of The Macmillan Co., New York.)

Fibro-cartilage is developed at first in exactly the same manner as hyaline cartilage, but at a certain stage connective-tissue fibres, either elastic or white, become formed in the ground-substance or matrix, and as they accumulate they impart their distinctive character to the tissue. The development of elastic fibres is preceded by the deposition of granules of elastin in the matrix.

In some parts where white fibro-cartilage is found the tissue is at first entirely fibrous, like tendon or ligament, and the cartilage is a secondary formation. In such cases the cartilage-cells are formed by direct transformation from the tendon-cells.

The **notochord** is, in the higher vertebrates, a purely vestigial structure appearing early in development and considerably regressing as the vertebral column is formed. Although not unlike parenchymatous cartilage (p. 119) in appearance, the notochord is not mesodermal but endodermal in origin. The cell-walls though thin are very firm and the excentric position of the nuclei is said to be due to their displacement by the watery cell-contents which would seem to be under considerable pressure (fig. 132). This is in contrast with parenchymatous cartilage in which the contents of the cells are of the nature of fat. As pointed out above, the notochord becomes pinched by the developing vertebral centrum, though it still persists as a definite plate in the centre of each of the inter-vertebral disks.

LESSON XIII.

BONE.

1. In thin sections of hard bone made by grinding,¹ observe the Haversian canals, lamellæ, lacunæ, canaliculi, etc. Make sketches under low and high powers.

2. With fine forceps strip off a thin shred from the superficial layers of a macerated bone which has been decalcified in commercial sulphurous acid solution and afterwards washed with water for 24 hours. (The decalcified bone may be kept in 33 per cent. alcohol.) Mount the shred in water. Observe the fibrous structure of the lamellæ. Look for perforating fibres or the holes from which they have been dragged out. Sketch a small piece of the thin edge of a lamella.

3. Stain with hæmatoxylin and eosin thin sections of fresh compact bone which has been fixed with saturated aqueous mercuric chloride and decalcified by Gooding's and Stewart's method (see Appendix). Look for fibres of Sharpey piercing the circumferential lamellæ. The elastic perforating fibres may be stained by orcein. Notice the nuclei of the bone-corpuscles in the lacunæ. In thin sections the blood-vessels and other structures in the Haversian canals may be discerned.

Bone is a connective tissue in which the ground-substance is impregnated with salts of lime, chiefly phosphate, these salts constituting about two-thirds of the weight of the bone. When bones are macerated these calcium salts prevent the putrefaction of the animal matter. When bone is calcined it loses one-third of its weight, owing to the destruction of the animal matter; when steeped in acid the earthy salts are dissolved and only the animal matter known as ostein is left. This, like areolar and fibrous tissue, is converted into gelatine by boiling.

Bony tissue is either *compact* or *cancellated*. Embryonic bone is laid down in this latter form.

Compact bone is dense, almost like ivory; cancellated is spongy with obvious interstices. The outer layers of all bones are compact, and the inner part is generally cancellated, but the shaft of a long bone is almost entirely made up of compact substance, except in and near the middle, which is hollow and filled with marrow. The interstices of cancellated bone are also occupied by marrow. Externally bones are always covered, except at the joints, by a vascular fibrous membrane, the *periosteum*.

True bone is always made up of *lamellæ*, and these again are composed of fine *fibres* lying in a *calcified ground-substance*. Between the lamellæ are branched cells, the *bone-cells*, which lie in *cell-spaces* or *lacunæ*. The ramified passages containing the cell-processes and uniting the lacunæ are termed *canaliculi*.

¹ Such a section should be purchased: it is difficult to make without a proper lath.

In **cancellated bone** the blood-vessels run in the interstices of the bone, surrounded and supported by the marrow. In compact bone they are contained in canals—the *Haversian canals*—which everywhere pervade the bone. These canals average $50\ \mu$ in diameter; some are much smaller, others much larger than this. Their general direction is longitudinal, *i.e.*, parallel with the long axis of the bone, but they are constantly united by transversely and obliquely running passages. In a section across the shaft

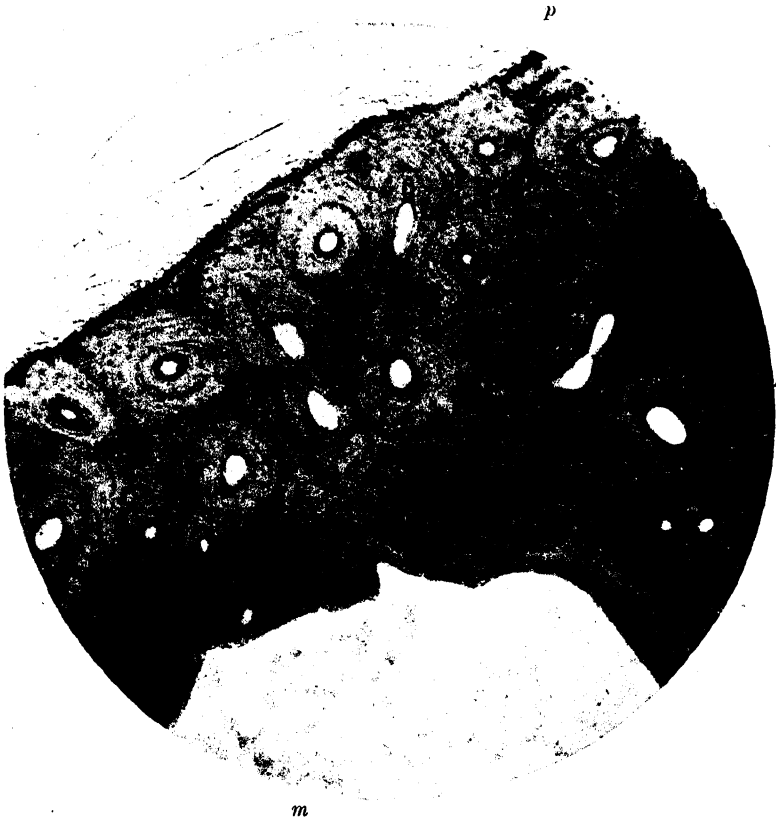


FIG. 133.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF DECALCIFIED BONE: HUMAN FIBULA.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 56$. Photograph.

p, periosteum; *m*, marrow.

of a long bone they are seen as small rounded or elongated holes (fig. 133). When the section has been made by grinding, the holes get filled with air and débris; the air causes them to look black by transmitted light. This is also the case with the lacunæ and canaliculi (fig. 134).

In **compact bone** most of the lamellæ are disposed concentrically around the Haversian canals; they are known as Haversian lamellæ, and with the included canals, form what are known as *Haversian systems*. The lacunæ of an Haversian system communicate both with one another and with the

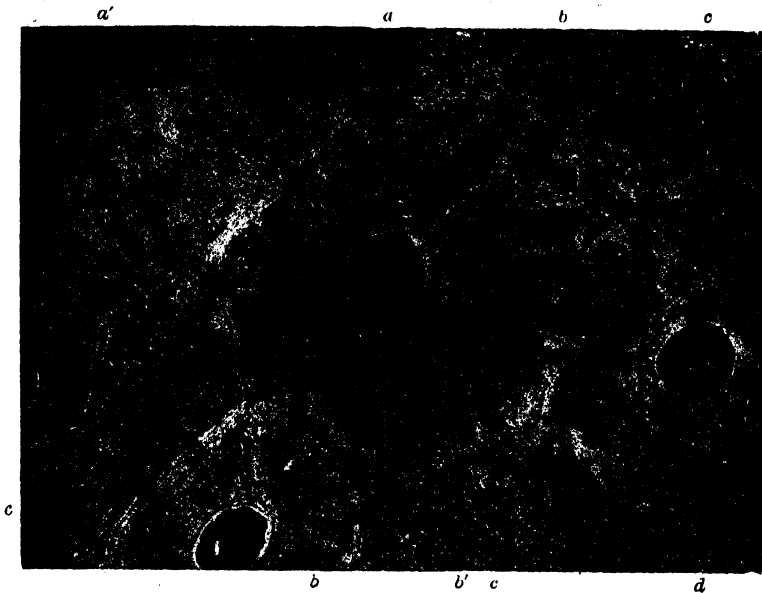


FIG. 134.—PHOTOGRAPH OF TRANSVERSE SECTION OF COMPACT BONE, MADE BY GRINDING, SHOWING THREE HAVERSIAN CANALS WITH THEIR CONCENTRIC LAMELLÆ, AND ALSO INTER-HAVERSIAN BONY SUBSTANCE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.

a, Haversian canal, filled with air and debris; *a'*, a very small canal; *b*, *b'*, junctions of Haversian systems; *c*, *c*, lamellæ parallel to periosteum; *d*, inter-Haversian bone with irregular lacunæ.

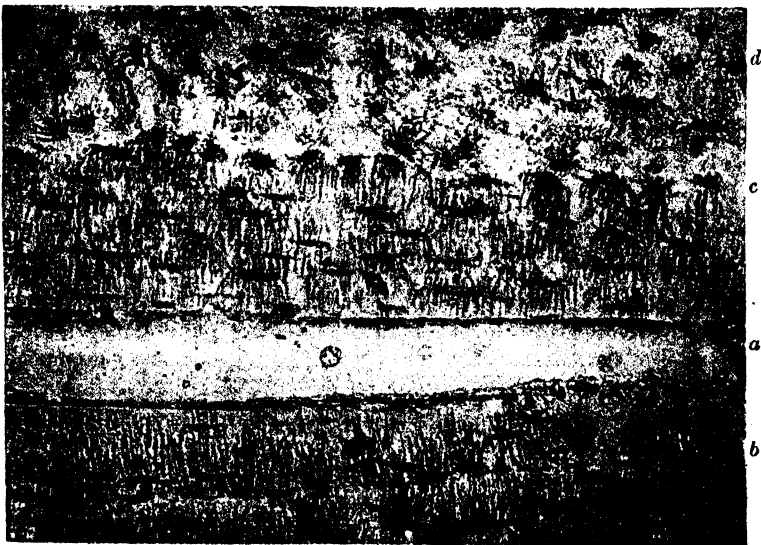


FIG. 135.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF COMPACT BONE, SHOWING HAVERSIAN SYSTEMS AND INTER-HAVERSIAN BONE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.

a, Haversian canal out longitudinally; *b*, junction of two Haversian systems of lamellæ; *c*, margin of Haversian system abutting upon inter-Haversian bone with irregular lacunæ, *d*.

Haversian canal which they encircle, but not as a rule with the lacunæ of adjacent Haversian systems. The angular interstices between the Haversian systems are generally occupied by bony substance which is not regularly lamellar (figs. 134, 135, *d*). Besides the concentric lamellæ of the Haversian systems there are other lamellæ both at the surface, immediately underneath the periosteum (fig. 133), and throughout the thickness of compact bone, between the Haversian systems (fig. 134, *c, c, c*), arranged parallel with the surface; these are known as *periosteal lamellæ*. They are pierced here and there by simple canals for blood-vessels, the so-called *Volkman's canals*, which are proceeding from the periosteum to join the system of Haversian canals; and also by calcified bundles of white fibres and by

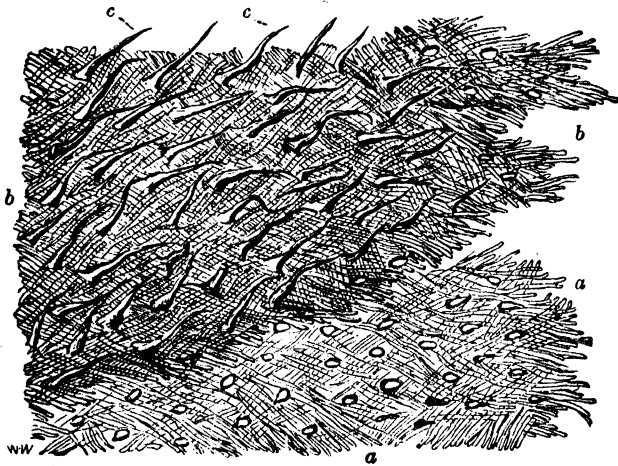


FIG. 136.—LAMELLÆ TORN OFF FROM A DECALCIFIED HUMAN PARIETAL BONE AT SOME DEPTH FROM THE SURFACE.

a, lamellæ, showing decussating fibres; *b*, *b*, thicker part, where several lamellæ are superposed; *c*, *c*, perforating fibres; the fibrils which compose them are not shown in the figure. Apertures through which perforating fibres had passed are seen, especially in the lower part, *a*, of the figure. Magnitude as seen under a power of 200 diameters, but not drawn to scale. (Sketched by Allen Thomson from a preparation by W. Sharpey.)

elastic fibres prolonged from the periosteum. These are the *perforating fibres of Sharpey* (fig. 136), most of which represent the actual insertion of tendons and ligaments into the bone. They are found only in the periosteal lamellæ and, as may be understood from the above, do not occur everywhere in bone.

The lamellæ of bone are fibrous in structure. This may be seen in shreds torn off from the superficial layers of a decalcified bone. These fibres, the *decussating fibres of Sharpey*, often cross one another in adjacent lamellæ, and in the Haversian systems they run in some lamellæ concentrically, in others parallel with the Haversian canal. In shreds of lamellæ which have been peeled from the surface the perforating fibres may sometimes be seen projecting from the surface of the shred, having been torn out of the deeper lamellæ.

The lacunæ are occupied by nucleated corpuscles (*bone cells*), which send branches along the canaliculi (fig. 187). Both lacunæ and canaliculi have a special lining which is different in chemical composition from the rest of the bone, being much more resistant to the action of strong chemical solvents such as hydrochloric acid. The dentinal tubules of the teeth have a similar lining.

Each Haversian canal contains one or two blood-vessels and nerves

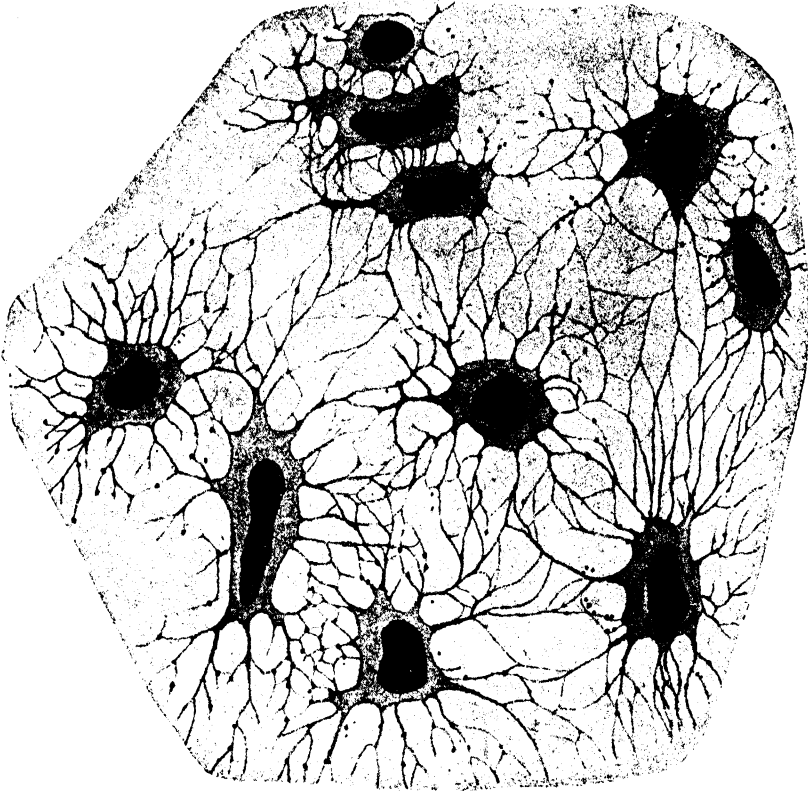


FIG. 137.—BONE CELLS AND THEIR CANALICULI IN THIN MEMBRANE BONE OF MOUSE.
(After Maximow and Bloom.) $\times 1040$.

(By permission of the W. B. Saunders Co., Philadelphia, U.S.A.)

besides connective tissue (fig. 138); the larger ones may include a few marrow-cells. There are also cleft-like lymphatics running with the blood-vessels. The Volkmann canals have similar contents but the vessels are larger (fig. 139).

Nutrition and gaseous exchanges take place from and to the vessels in the Haversian canals by diffusion along the protoplasmic processes which connect adjacent bone-cells with one another and with connective-tissue cells and blood-vessels in the canals.

The **periosteum** may be studied either in torn-off shreds, or in preparations treated *in situ* with silver nitrate, or in stained sections from an unmacerated bone which has been decalcified. It is a fibrous membrane composed of two layers, the inner of which contains many elastic fibres. In the outer layer numerous blood-vessels ramify and send branches to the Haversian



FIG. 138.—SECTION OF AN HAVERSIAN CANAL WITH ITS CONTENTS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 300$. Photograph.

Notice the concentric lamellae of the Haversian system around the canal. The latest lamella to be formed is more darkly stained than the rest. Within the canal are seen the sections of two blood-vessels (arterial and venous), and of nerve-fibres: as well as a cleft-like lymph-vessel.

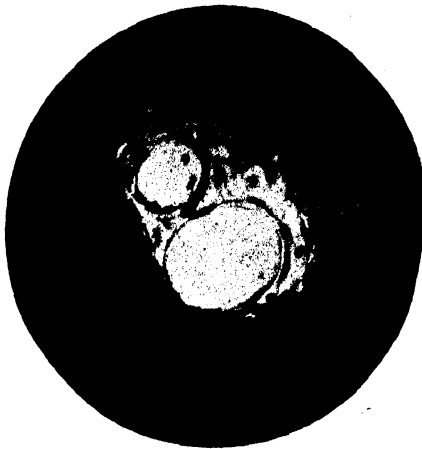


FIG. 139.—SECTION OF A VOLKMANN CANAL WITH ITS CONTENTS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 300$. Photograph.

There are no concentric lamellae around this canal. The blood-vessels are larger and there is, besides these and nerve-fibres, a quantity of delicate connective tissue.

canals of the bone. The periosteum ministers to the nutrition of the bone, partly on account of the blood-vessels and lymphatics it contains, partly, especially in young animals, on account of the existence between it and the bone of a layer of *osteoblasts* or *bone-forming cells*, a remainder of those which originally produced the bone. It also serves to give attachment to adjacent muscles.

The **marrow** of bone has been already considered (p. 54).

LESSON XIV.

DEVELOPMENT OF BONE : OSSIFICATION.

1. MOUNT in dammar stained sections, longitudinal and transverse, of foetal limbs. The bones will be in different stages of ossification, those of the wrist or ankle and digits being least developed. Make sketches illustrating the three chief stages of endochondral ossification. Notice the peculiar terminal ossification of the third phalanx.

2. Mount in dammar sections of a foetal lower jaw (membrane bone). Find the part where the lower jaw-bone is becoming ossified, and study the appearances it presents. The bone is prolonged in the form of osteogenic fibres which are covered with osteoblasts.

3. Intramembranous ossification may also be studied in the parietal or frontal bones of embryos fixed in 'Susa.' The acid content of this usually makes any further decalcification unnecessary.

Bones may be divided into two groups according to the manner in which they are formed.

Membrane Bones are those in which bone is laid down direct in connective tissue. This type of ossification is known as *intramembranous*, and by it are formed most of the bones of the skull, all those of the face and also the clavicles.

Cartilage Bones first appear in the foetus as hyaline cartilage for which bone is eventually substituted—except over the articular surfaces which remain cartilaginous. This process is known as *endochondral ossification* and is responsible for the development of all limb-bones and of the vertebral column.

1. MEMBRANOUS OSSIFICATION.

This, being a simpler process than endochondral ossification, may be considered first.

The embryonic connective tissue in which the future bone is to be formed becomes highly vascularised. Fibres, known as the *osteogenic fibres*, next appear (see fig. 142); they become collected into fine bundles and are soon enclosed in a calcareous matrix formed by the deposition of calcium salts in the ground-substance of the connective tissue. This specialised area is the ossification centre of the bone. *Osteoblasts* now appear and with them the formation of trabeculae of true bone. These cells are found wherever bone is being deposited and are mesenchymal in origin; they are small, darkly staining, and vary in shape from flat elements to cubical or columnar cells.

Orientating themselves around the osteogenic fibres the osteoblasts deposit bone in the shape of branching lamellæ (see figs. 140 and 142). Some of the osteoblasts become enclosed in the bone as it is formed around them. It



FIG. 140.—SECTION OF FETAL SKULL BONE OF CAT. (H.M.C.) $\times 100$.

c.t., embryonic connective tissue; *m*, marrow in medullary cavity; *o*, layer of osteoblasts in periosteum; *ol.*, bone cells, previously osteoblasts, which have been isolated by deposition of bone around them.

is in this way that the isolated bone cells are formed. *Pari passu* with the above changes the periosteum becomes fibrous tissue closely investing the bone.

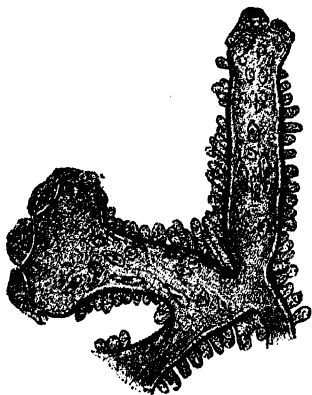


FIG. 141.—BONY TRABECULÆ FROM THE DEVELOPING LOWER JAW OF A CALF, SHOWING OSTEOCLASTS AT THE EXTREMITIES WHERE ABSORPTION IS PROCEEDING, AND OSTEOBLASTS COVERING THE SIDES WHERE DEPOSITION OF BONE IS GOING ON. (Kölliker.)

Growth in the skull bones is rapid in view of the increasing volume of the cranial cavity. Growth here is accomplished partly by extension in surface area of the bone by progressive ossification of the connective tissue at its edges; partly by the deposition of new bone immediately below the periosteum, this being accompanied by a synchronous absorption of the inner bony lamellæ. The skull bones thus expand outwards without becoming unduly thick.

2. ENDOCHONDRAL OSSIFICATION.

The main processes are first described, the details of the histology of endochondral bone formation being considered in Section 3.

It was at one time thought that the limb-bones were formed by a process similar to that just described, *i.e.*, by the direct transformation of connective

tissue into bone. Later, it was imagined that the cartilaginous model of the bone became directly transformed into true bone.



FIG. 142.—FROM A SECTION OF DEVELOPING LOWER JAW (MEMBRANE BONE) FROM A HUMAN FETUS OF 8½ MONTHS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 230$. Photograph.

Note the osteoblasts enclosed as bone-cells in the already formed bone, and the osteogenic fibres prolonging the newly formed bone into the adjacent tissue.

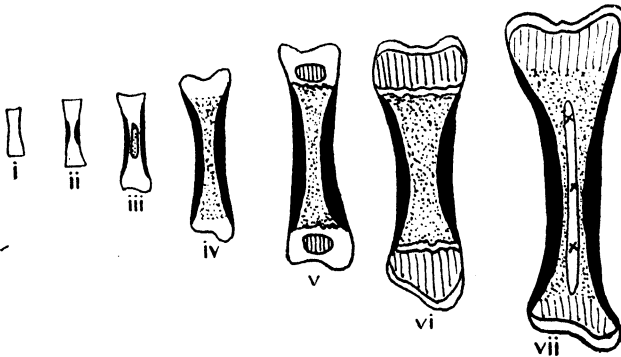


FIG. 143.—DIAGRAM OF THE FORMATION OF A LONG LIMB-BONE.

Cartilage, white. Subperiosteal bone, black. Primary ossification centre and bone formed from it, dotted. Secondary ossification centres and bone formed from them, vertically lined.

- (i) Original cartilaginous model. (ii) Appearance of subperiosteal bone. (iii) Beginning of ossification in primary centre. (iv) Extension of latter towards the epiphysis. (v) Appearance of secondary (epiphyseal) centres. (vi) Ossification now complete except for inter-cartilaginous disks. (vii) Disappearance of latter; the only cartilage remaining being that of the articular surfaces. Appearance of the medullary cavity (X).

Subperiosteal ossification is proceeding in (ii) to (vii). (Diagram after Mathias Duval.)

It is now known that neither of these views is correct; *bone is substituted in the place of cartilage*; the latter is formed only to be destroyed: true

bone, laid down in quite a different pattern from cartilage, then taking its place.

Ossification of the limb-bones begins at a point situated around the centre of the diaphysis, known as the *primary ossification centre* (see fig. 143). Here the cartilage becomes calcified, next eroded and its debris eventually replaced by true bone (fig. 150). This is deposited in the shape of trabeculae by osteoblasts. The process, beginning in the middle of the shaft, extends progressively towards the epiphyses. Somewhat later, bone formation begins in each of these, the areas being known as *secondary ossification centres*. The process is much the same as in the primary centre, viz., invasion of the epiphysial cartilages by the periosteum with the eventual substitution of bone. Now the production of bone in the epiphyses extends not only towards their ends but also towards the primary ossification centre. It thus comes about that a layer of cartilage is left on the articular surfaces of the bone; there is also left a sheet of cartilage, the *inter-cartilaginous disk*, between the shaft and the epiphysis. These epiphysial cartilages normally persist until about the twentieth year and then become transformed into bone. Once this has occurred increase in length is no longer possible.

In the pathological condition of Acromegaly, gigantism results if the onset of the disease precedes the disappearance of the epiphysial cartilaginous plates. The lower jaw and limb-bones, and even more so the hands and feet, undergo a quite disproportionate development. Calcium deficiency causes bone to be absorbed, while alteration in the stresses imposed on bone (e.g., amputation of the opposite limb) modifies the structure.

It has been shown that increase in length of limb-bones is due to expansion of their cartilages and to the substitution for these of bone. Concomitantly with increase in length the bones become thicker. *Subperiosteal ossification* (fig. 143) is responsible for this, fresh bone being deposited at the periphery while the older (internal) bone is destroyed. The processes in the deposition of periosteal bone are similar to those already described in membranous ossification in that bone is laid down directly by the periosteal osteoblasts without the intervention of the cartilaginous phase.

The *Haversian systems* are formed after birth by an erosion of the foetal lamellae and the substitution of the concentrically arranged layers of bone in the Haversian systems. It is also about this time that the large marrow cavity of the long bones is formed by the absorption of the bony tissue which occupies the centre of the shaft. The marrow, up till now largely involved in ossification, becomes increasingly populated with blood-forming cells as already described in Lesson III.

The centres of ossification are not always as described above. The chief exceptions are: the *terminal phalanges* of the digits where the ossification starts, *not* from the middle of the cartilage but from its distal extremity; the *vertebrae*, in each of which ossification starts on each side of the mid-line with eventual fusion. In the *femur* there is a tertiary ossification centre in the great trochanter.

3. HISTOLOGY OF ENDOCHONDRAL OSSIFICATION.

Three areas, grading into each other, may be seen with the microscope.

(i) *Zone of Hypertrophy*.—The cells in the middle of the cartilage become enlarged and arranged in rows radiating from the centre (fig. 144), and fine granules of calcareous matter are deposited here in the matrix. Simul-



FIG. 144.—SECTION OF PHALANGEAL BONE OF HUMAN FETUS AT THE TIME OF COMMENCING OSSIFICATION. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 75$. Preparation by F. A. Dixey.

The cartilage-cells in the centre are enlarged and are separated from one another by stained calcified matrix; *im*, layer of bone deposited underneath the periosteum; *o*, layer of osteoblasts, by which the layer has been formed. Some of the osteoblasts are already embedded in the new bone as bone-cells within lacunae. Above and below the calcified centre the cartilage-cells are flattened and arranged in rows.

taneously with this the *osteoblasts* underneath the periosteum—formerly the perichondrium—deposit layers of fibrous material upon the surface of the cartilage; this material also becomes calcified (fig. 144, *im*). As the layers are formed, some of the osteoblasts (*o*) are included between them and become bone-corpuscles.

(ii) *Zone of Irruption*.—Vascular subperiosteal tissue eats its way through the newly formed layer of bone and into the centre of the calcified cartilage (fig. 145, *ir*). This is freely absorbed during its advance (fig. 145), so that large spaces are produced which are occupied by embryonic connective tissue,



FIG. 145.—SECTION OF PART OF ONE OF THE LIMB-BONES OF A FETAL CAT, AT A MORE ADVANCED STAGE OF OSSIFICATION THAN THE BONE REPRESENTED IN FIG. 144, AND MORE HIGHLY MAGNIFIED. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

The calcification of the cartilage-matrix has advanced from the primary ossification centre, and is extending between the groups of cartilage-cells, which are arranged in characteristic rows. The subperiosteal bony deposit (*im*) has extended *pari passu* with the calcification of the cartilage-matrix. At *ir* and in two other places an irruption of the subperiosteal tissue has penetrated the bone, and has begun to excavate spaces in the calcified cartilage; *p*, fibrous layer of the periosteum; *o*, layer of osteoblasts: some of them are embedded in the osseous layer as bone-corpuscles in lacunae. The blood-vessels (red) are seen occupied by blood-corpuscles. Beyond the line of ossific advance the periosteum may be noticed to be incurved. This incurvation is gradually moved on, the cartilage expanding beyond it until the head of the bone is reached, when it forms the periosteal notch or groove represented in fig. 148.

including numerous osteoblasts and many sinus-like blood-vessels which have grown in from those of the periosteum. These spaces are the *primitive marrow spaces*, and even in very early stages contain developing red and white blood-corpuscles.

(iii) *Zone of Calcification*.—Here, as already seen, there is a gradual advance of the ossification towards the extremities of the cartilage, and at the same time a deposition of fresh bony layers on the walls or septa of the marrow spaces, and on the surface of the new bone under the periosteum (figs. 145 and 149). The advance into the cartilage always takes place by a repetition of the following changes :—the cartilage-cells first enlarge and

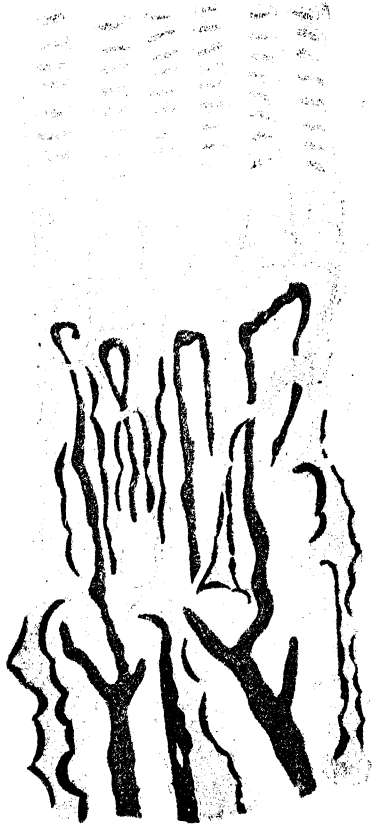


FIG. 146.—PART OF A LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF THE DEVELOPING FEMUR OF THE RABBIT. (Klein.) Drawn under a magnifying power of 350 diameters.

a, serially arranged cartilage-cells ; *b*, zone of hypertrophy ; *c*, *d*, newly formed bone ; *e*, osteoblasts depositing bone ; *f*, osteoclasts, generally supposed to be concerned in destruction of cartilage ; *g*, *h*, degenerating cartilage-cells in zone of irruption—note the vascular loops therein.

become arranged in rows ; the matrix nearest the already formed osseous tissue becomes calcified ; finally, the calcified cartilage is excavated from behind by the invading vascular tissue so as to form new marrow spaces (fig. 146). The septa between these are at first formed only by remains of the calcified cartilage-matrix (fig. 146, *c*), but they soon become thickened by layers of fibrous bone deposited by the osteoblasts (fig. 150), and between the layers bone-corpuscles become included.



FIG. 147.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION THROUGH THE UPPER HALF OF THE DECALCIFIED HUMERUS OF A FETAL SHEEP, AS SEEN UNDER A MAGNIFYING POWER OF ABOUT 30 DIAMETERS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

c, the part of the shaft which was primarily ossified in cartilage. The spaces in the bone are occupied by embryonic marrow with osteoblasts, and blood-vessels variously cut. One long straight vessel (*bv*) passes in advance of the line of ossification far into the cartilaginous head. At one or two places in the older parts of the bone elongated groups of cartilage-cells (*cc*) may still be seen, which have hitherto escaped absorption. *m*, the part of the bone that has been formed by the periosteum. The subperiosteal layer is prolonged above into the thickening (*p*) which encroaches upon the cartilage of the head of the bone, and in which are seen, amongst numerous osteoblasts and a few blood-vessels, straight longitudinal osteogenic fibres (*of*), and some other fibres (*pf*) crossing them, and perhaps representing fibres of Sharpey. Observe the general tendency of the osseous trabeculae and the vascular channels between them to radiate from the original centre of ossification. (Figs. 145 to 147 were drawn by T. W. P. Lawrence.)



FIG. 148.—SECTION OF THE OSSIFICATION GROOVE IN THE HEAD OF A LONG BONE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

c, cartilage; *p*, periosteal tissue with osteogenic fibres and osteoblasts. This tissue occupies the "groove."

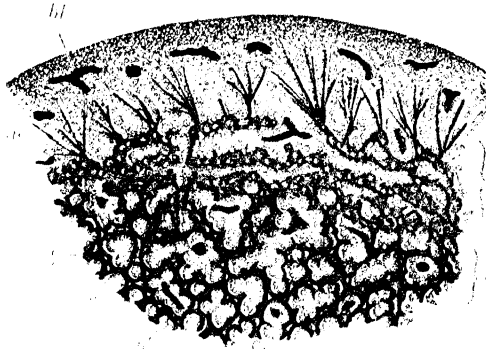


FIG. 149.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF A DEVELOPING BONE SIMILAR TO THAT SHOWN IN FIG. 147, SHOWING THE PERIOSTEAL LAYER BECOMING FORMED FROM OSTEOGENIC FIBRES. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

cb, cartilage bone; *pb*, periosteal bone; *sp*, bone trabeculae prolonged by osteogenic fibres; *p*, periosteum; *bl*, blood-vessels; *c*, remains of calcified cartilage; *o*, osteoblasts forming bone upon this.



FIG. 150.—PART OF A TRANSVERSE SECTION OF A DEVELOPING LONG BONE FROM A HUMAN FETUS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.

p, fetal periosteum; *p'*, bone laid down in periosteum; *e*, endochondral bone composed of calcified cartilage in the centre of the septa and layers of true bone covering this; *m*, marrow spaces mainly filled with embryonic connective tissue and large sinus-like blood capillaries. Notice the osteoblasts on the surfaces of the newly formed bone—both periosteal and endochondral.

The absorption of the calcified cartilage matrix is thought by some largely to be effected by the *osteoclasts* (fig. 146, *f, f*). In their fully formed typical condition these are multi-nucleated giant cells. They are often found on surfaces where absorption of bone is taking place, whereas on surfaces where bony deposit is proceeding osteoblasts occur.



FIG. 151.—HAVERSIAN SPACE BECOMING CONVERTED INTO AN HAVERSIAN SYSTEM BY DEPOSITION OF CONCENTRIC LAMELLÆ ON ITS WALLS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 210$.

The photograph is from a human fibula at a moderately advanced stage. Most of the contents are separated by a clear space from the wall of the canal, but the layer of osteoblasts is seen to be adherent to the wall. Two or three layers of fibrous bony lamellae have been deposited—the fibres appearing in sections in the alternate layers as fine points. Some of the osteoblasts are already enclosed between the new lamellae.

It would appear that osteoclasts are formed from osteoblasts, either by increase of size and multiplication of nuclei or by coalescence of several osteoblasts (H. B. Fell) (see fig. 7, p. 6), and that they afterwards break up into separate osteoblasts.

4. MECHANISM OF BONE FORMATION.

This in many respects is still obscure. Recent work (Policard and Leriche) indicates that the osteoclasts play but a subsidiary part in the destruction of *cartilage*; the absence or scarcity of these cells in areas in which active destruction is going on is suggestive of this. The absorption of cartilage would therefore appear to be more a matter of solution through some humoral mechanism.

The periosteum is a nutritive membrane: from its blood-vessels most of those of the bone are derived. It is also of great regenerative importance, it having long been known that repair of a fractured bone is primarily dependent on the ingrowth of osteoblasts and periosteal tissue between its fractured ends. Bone formation is primarily controlled by the periosteum; when pulled away, by trauma or surgery, from the underlying bone, fresh bone forms until it

meets the periosteum. From Policard's work there would appear to be a contact-equilibrium between bone and its periosteum.

It has been shown by Fell that in tissue cultures the limb-bones removed from young (5 to 7 day) chick embryos will grow and undergo a considerable

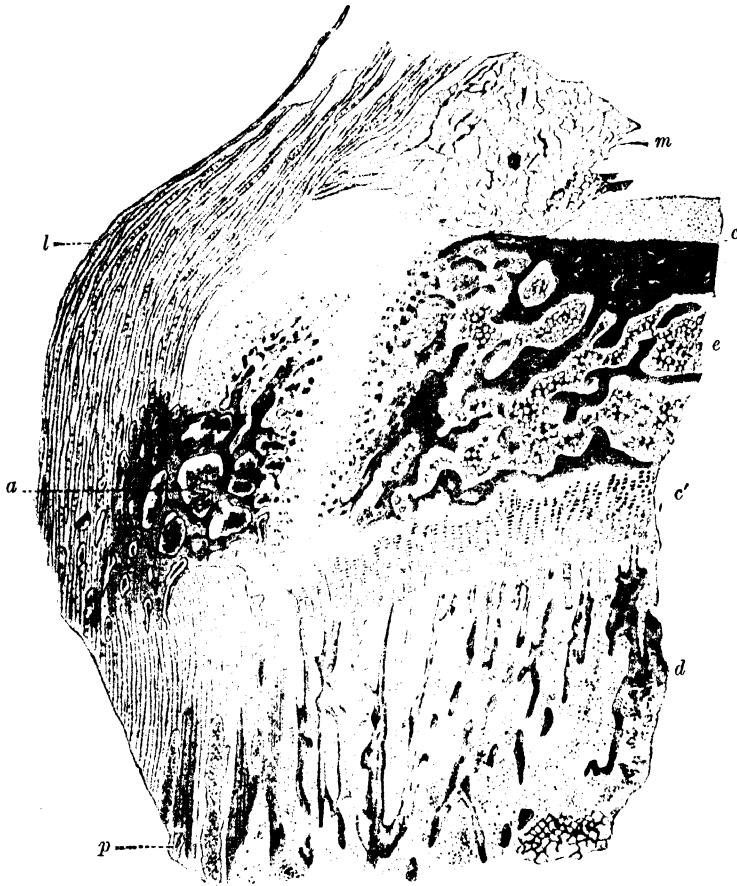


FIG. 152.—SECTION THROUGH UPPER END OF TIBIA OF A HALF-GROWN RABBIT.

(A. Bidder.) Drawn under a magnifying power of 30 diameters.

a, apophysis; *c*, epiphysis; *d*, diaphysis; *l*, ligamentum patellae; *e*, cartilage of articular surface; *c'*, intermediate cartilage; *p*, periosteum, with periosteal bone; *m*, pad of synovial membrane.

amount of differentiation. Not only are characteristic epiphysal and diaphysal regions formed but bone will sometimes appear in such cultures.

Fell and Robison have collected evidence which indicates that a locally produced ferment is responsible for the appearance of bone. This *phosphatase* would seem to be formed in the zone of hypertrophied cartilage cells, and through it any free calcium salts are caused to form calcium phosphate—the chief inorganic constituent of bone.

LESSON XV.

MUSCLE.

1. **STUDY** stained longitudinal and transverse sections of muscle which have been fixed in Susa. The tongue is an excellent object as muscle fibres will be found sectioned in both planes. Examine them first with a low and then with a high power. Sketch the appearances which are seen.

2. **Rollett's method.** Cut off the head of an insect (wasp, small beetle), bisect the trunk and place in 90 per cent. alcohol for 24 hours. Then remove small pieces of muscle, and place in strong glycerine overnight. Wash thoroughly with water and transfer to 1 per cent. gold chloride solution : leave the pieces of muscle in this from 15 to 30 minutes according to size. From the gold solution they are transferred to formic acid (1 part of the strong acid to 3 of water), and kept in the dark for 24 hours : but they may be kept longer without disadvantage. The muscle is then teased in glycerine. Some of the fibres will be found after this process to have their sarcoplasm darkly stained, and to show the appearance of a network both in longitudinal and transverse view : others, on the other hand, have the sarcoous elements of the fibrils or sarcostyles stained, whilst the sarcoplasm has remained colourless. This preparation is especially designed to show the structure of the fibrils of the wing-muscles. The staining is uncertain, but when successful is unsurpassed by any other method.

3. The tongue muscle fibres fixed as in § 1 are a good object for study of the fibrils after staining in Heidenhain's iron hæmatoxylin (see Appendix).

TABLE OF TYPES OF MUSCLE.

	Striated.	Non-striated.	Cardiac.
Size . .	Very variable, especially in length, which varies from $50\ \mu$ to over $40,000\ \mu$, i.e., 40 mm. Branching rare.	Relatively short : 15 to $500\ \mu$. Branching rare.	Length difficult to assess since the films branch.
Shape .	Filiform.	Filiform, but less pronouncedly so than in striated muscle.	Short and blunt, the ends of the fibres abutting on each other.
Nuclei .	Peripheral and very numerous—especially in a long fibre.	Central and single.	Central and usually single, though sometimes found in pairs.
Striations	Longitudinal and transverse.	Longitudinal only.	Longitudinal and transverse.

CROSS-STRIATED, VOLUNTARY, OR SKELETAL MUSCLE.

Cross-striated muscle is composed of long cylindrical fibres, measuring on an average $50\ \mu$ ($\frac{1}{500}$ inch) in diameter in mammals, and often having a

length of an inch or more. But many fibres are much larger or smaller than the average. Each fibre has an extensible sheath, the *sarcolemma*, which encloses the contractile substance and is about $1\ \mu$ in thickness. The sarcolemma is seldom visible, unless the contained substance becomes broken (fig. 153) or has retracted from the sheath as can often be seen in partially autolysed fibres. A fibrillar structure has been described in the sarcolemma, but under ordinary circumstances it appears completely homogeneous.

The contractile substance is characterised by the alternate dark and

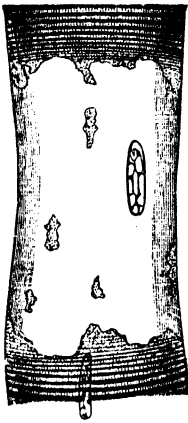


FIG. 153.

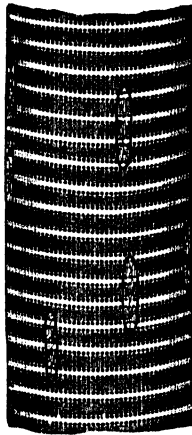


FIG. 154.

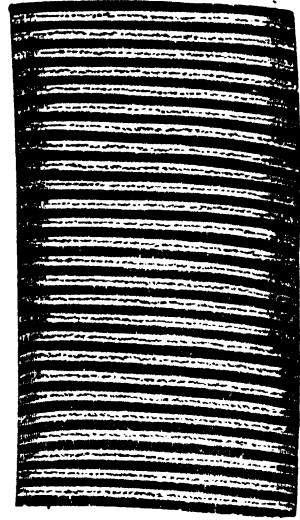


FIG. 155.

FIG. 153.—SARCOLEMA OF MAMMALIAN MUSCLE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Highly magnified.

The fibre is represented at a place where the muscular substance has become ruptured and has shrunk away, leaving the sarcolemma (with a nucleus adhering to it). The fibre has been treated with serum acidulated with acetic acid.

FIG. 154.—MUSCULAR FIBRE OF A MAMMAL EXAMINED FRESH IN SERUM, THE SURFACE OF THE FIBRE BEING ACCURATELY FOCUSED. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Highly magnified.

The nuclei are seen on the flat at the surface of the fibre, and in profile towards the edge.

FIG. 155.—PORTION OF A MEDIUM-SIZED HUMAN MUSCULAR FIBRE, SHOWING THE INTERMEDIATE LINE (DOBIE'S LINE) MENTIONED IN THE TEXT. (W. Sharpey.)

light stripes which run across the length of the fibre (fig. 154); hence the term cross-striated. On focusing, it can be seen that the stripes pass through the whole thickness of the fibre; they have therefore been looked upon as representing alternate disks of dark and light substance. If the fibre is very carefully focused, rows of apparent granules (dots) are seen lying in or at the boundaries of the light streaks, and very fine longitudinal lines may, with a good microscope, be detected uniting the dots (fig. 154). These fine lines, with their enlargements the dots, are conspicuous in the muscles of arthropods (figs. 161, 162). They indicate an interstitial material between the longitudinal elements, the *myofibrils*, which in fixed and stained specimens are

seen to compose the fibre. Between the fibrils there is a relatively homogeneous ground-substance, the *sarcoplasm*. The existence of the myofibrils in the living fibre is open to some doubt since many observers have been



FIG. 156.



FIG. 157.

FIG. 156.—SMALL PORTION OF A HUMAN MUSCULAR FIBRE TEASED INTO SMALL LONGITUDINAL FRAGMENTS. (W. Sharpey.) Magnified about 800 diameters.

a, b, c, larger and smaller groups of fibrils; d, ultimate fibrils.

FIG. 157.—SMALL PORTION OF A MUSCLE-FIBRE OF CRAB SPLITTING UP INTO FIBRILS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Magnified 600 diameters. From a photograph.

unable to detect them in tissue cultures; after fixation, however, they become apparent. The cross-striations, on the other hand, are easily identified in the living fibre.



FIG. 158.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF FOUR STRIATED MUSCLE FIBRES FROM HUMAN TONGUE; THE SMALL GROUPS OF MYOFIBRILS FORMING THE AREAS OF COHNHEIM ARE CLEARLY SHOWN; LIKEWISE THE PERIPHERAL NUCLEI AND THE SARCOLEMMMA. $\times 580$. (After P. Bouin.)

(By permission of Librairie Félix Alcan, Paris.)

Nuclei.—Besides sarcolemma and striated substance a muscle-fibre possesses a number of oval nuclei which have the usual structure of cell-nuclei; they often show spiral markings. Sometimes there is a little granular substance (protoplasm) at each pole of the nucleus; each nucleus

with the adjacent protoplasm has then been spoken of as a *muscle-corpuscle*. But the protoplasm which is adjacent to the nuclei is continuous with the sarcoplasm between the fibrils, both being remains of part of the original protoplasm of the cells from which the muscular fibres are developed. In mammalian muscle the nuclei are usually immediately under the sarcolemma (figs. 158 to 160), in a frog's muscle they are scattered throughout its thickness, in the leg-muscles of insects they lie in the middle of the fibre.

Mitochondria and (probably) **Golgi bodies** are present in the striated muscle fibres.

Red muscles.—In most mammals all the striated muscles have the deep red colour characteristic of the 'flesh' of animals. In the frog all the muscles are pale



FIG. 159.—FIBRES OF WHITE MUSCLE OF RABBIT SHOWING THE NUCLEI.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 435$. Preparation by May L. Cameron.

in colour. In the rabbit the muscles of the ordinary type of structure are pale in colour, but there occur others of a deep red colour. The fibres of this 'red' muscle usually contain more granular sarcoplasm than the ordinary fibres; their blood-vessels have a peculiarity of structure which will be afterwards noticed. They have many more nuclei than the ordinary fibres (figs. 159 and 160) and occasionally there are nuclei in the substance of the fibre as well as under the sarcolemma; but this is not common, nor is it entirely confined to fibres of the 'red' muscles.

The transverse section of a muscle shows the fibres to be nearly cylindrical, but in places where they are closely set they may be angular in section. Between the fibres is a certain amount of areolar tissue, which serves to support the blood-vessels and to unite the fibres into fasciculi; the fasciculi again are united by a large amount of this intra-muscular connective tissue, known as the *endomysium*.

On examining the cross-section of a fibre with a high power, it may be seen subdivided everywhere into small angular fields, *Cohnheim's areas* (fig. 158), which are themselves finely dotted. The dots represent sections of the fibrils of which the fibres are composed, and into which they may be split after death (figs. 156, 157), especially after being fixed in certain reagents, such as alcohol, chromic acid or osmic acid. The areas represent groups of fibrils, and are usually polyhedral, but they may be elongated; in some kinds of muscle, but not in mammals, they are disposed radially, and occasionally concentrically with the circumference of the section. The interstitial substance or sarcoplasm lies between the fibrils and can be made visible by staining with gold chloride (fig. 162). It is sometimes in relatively



FIG. 160.—FIBRES OF RED MUSCLE (SEMI-TENDINOSUS) OF RABBIT SHOWING THE NUCLEI. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 435$. Preparation by May L. Cameron.

large amount and then usually contains granules, but in most muscular fibres it is reduced to a very fine interstitium.

An ill-defined clear line is sometimes seen running transversely across the fibre in the middle of each dark band. This is termed *Hensen's line*.

If instead of focusing the surface of the fibre it is observed in its depth, an appearance different from that shown in fig. 154 is frequently visible, namely, a fine dotted line (*Dobie's line*), bisecting each clear stripe (fig. 155). This appearance is often considered to represent a membrane (*Krause's membrane*), which subdivides the fibrils at regular intervals (see p. 147). But the membranes of the individual fibrils or sarcostyles are rarely, if ever, visible in an intact mammalian fibre, and it is probable that the appearance known as *Dobie's line* in the middle of the clear stripe of the intact fibre is

due to interference, caused by the light being transmitted between disks of different refrangibility.

Haycraft suggested that the cross-striation of voluntary muscle is due to refractive effects produced by varicosity of the component fibrils; he based his view upon the fact that in impressions of the fibres made on soft collodion all the cross-striations which are observed in the fibre itself are reproduced. There is no doubt that a well-marked cross-striated appearance can be produced in homogeneous fibrils by regularly occurring varicosities, and many of the appearances observed in muscle may, as Haycraft contended, be referred to this cause.

Muscles of insects.—In the muscles of insects and crustaceans the stripes are relatively broad, and the structure can be much more readily made out than in mammals. In the living fibres from the muscles which move the legs

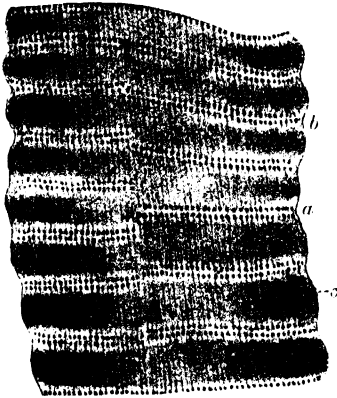


FIG. 161.—LEG-MUSCLE OF WATER-BEETLE IN LIVING CONDITION. (E. Sharpey - Schafer.) Highly magnified.

a, dim stripe; *b*, bright stripe; *c*, fine lines, with dot-like enlargements upon them which represent the interfibrillar sarcoplasm.

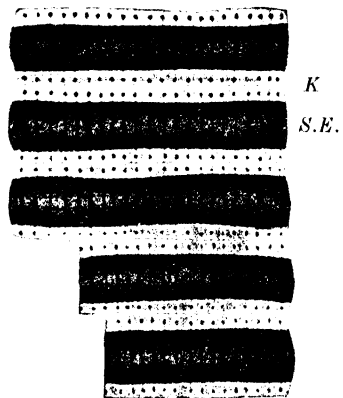


FIG. 162.—LEG-MUSCLE OF INSECT, STAINED WITH GOLD CHLORIDE BY ROLLETT'S METHOD. (E. Sharpey - Schafer.)

K, line formed by membranes of Krause; *S.E.*, dark stripe formed by sarcous elements. The sarcoplasm has the appearance of longitudinal lines with dots.

of insects, the sarcoplasm presents a striking appearance of fine longitudinal lines traversing the muscle, and enlarging within the light stripes into rows of dots (fig. 161). This is also seen in fibres and portions of fibres which have been treated with acid.

The muscular fibres of the wings of insects are considerably larger than those of the legs and contain a far greater amount of sarcoplasm, in which the fibrils are embedded. Hence, when a wing-fibre is broken up its fibrils are easily isolated, even in the fresh tissue (figs. 163, 164). It can then be seen even in the living muscle, but much more distinctly after fixation and staining, that each fibril or sarcostyle is composed of alternating dark and light portions, which by juxtaposition in adjacent fibrils produce the cross-striated appearance of the fibre. Further, in the middle of each of the clear striæ is a transverse septum, known as the *membrane of Krause*; by these mem-

branes the fibril is subdivided at regular intervals into serial portions, termed *sarcomeres*. The middle of each sarcomere is occupied by a *sarcous element*; the sarcous elements by their juxtaposition in adjacent fibrils form the dark striæ of the fibre.

The sarcous element is really double, as is shown by the fact that in the stretched fibril it separates into two (*line of Hensen*) (fig. 163, B). At each end of the sarcous element is clear substance (probably watery fluid)

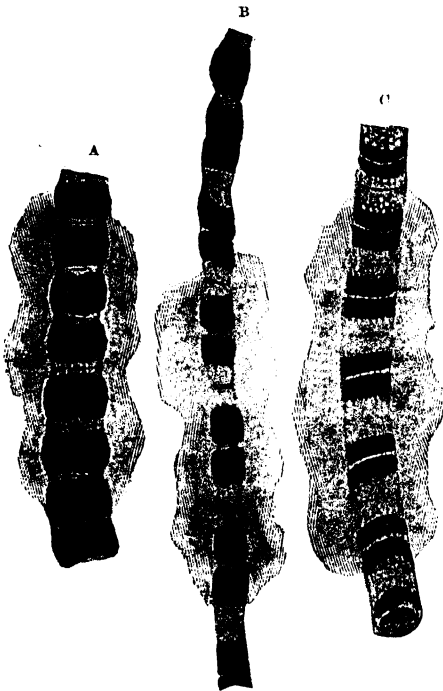


FIG. 163.—FIBRILS (SARCOSTYLES) OF THE WING-MUSCLES OF A WASP, PREPARED BY ROLLETT'S METHOD. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 2000$.

A, a contracted fibril. B, a contracted fibril which has been forcibly stretched, causing each sarcous element to be separated into two parts at the line of Hensen. C, an uncontracted fibril, showing the porous structure of the sarcous elements.



FIG. 164.—A FIBRIL (SARCOSTYLE) OF WING-MUSCLE OF WASP, STAINED BY ROLLETT'S METHOD. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 2000$. Untouched photograph.

separating it from the membrane of Krause: this clear substance is more evident the more the fibril is extended, but diminishes, even to complete disappearance, in the retracted (contracted) fibril (fig. 163, A). The cause of this change is explained if we study more minutely the structure of the sarcous element. For it can be shown that each sarcous element is pervaded by longitudinal canals or pores, which are open in the direction of Krause's membranes, but closed at the middle of the sarcous element (figs. 163, 164, 165). In the contracted muscle it can be seen that the clear part of the muscle-substance has nearly disappeared, the sarcous element is swollen

and the sarcomere is shortened; in the uncontracted muscle, on the other hand, the clear part occupies a considerable interval between the sarcous element and the membrane of Krause, the sarcomere being lengthened and narrowed. The sarcous element does not lie free in the middle of the sarcomere, but is attached at either end to Krause's membrane by what look like very fine lines, which may represent septa, running through the clear substance (fig. 164); on the other hand, Krause's membrane is attached laterally to a fine membrane which limits the fibril externally.

As already stated, the sarcous elements are set side by side in planes, thus forming the dark stripes or *principal disks* of the striated substance of ordinary muscle-fibres. In the wing-muscles of insects, the fibrils are surrounded by so considerable an amount of granular sarcoplasm that the whole fibre is only very indistinctly cross-striated, although each individual fibril is markedly so. The sarcous elements contain a large proportion of potassium salts (fig. 166).

Sometimes in the leg-muscles of arthropods what look like detached dot-like portions of the sarcous element are seen within the clear stripes, lying usually near Krause's membrane. The rows of such dots have been termed *accessory disks*. Most muscles show no accessory disks, but the dot-like sarcoplasm-enlargements between the fibrils (fig. 162) are often mistaken for them.

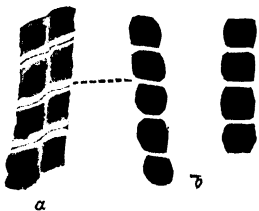


FIG. 166.—LOCALISATION OF POTASSIUM IN SARCOUS ELEMENTS OF WING-MUSCLE OF BEETLE. (A. B. Macallum.)

a, resting; b, contracted.

of the light stripes by dark. He further described this condition as being preceded by an intermediate stage in which the fibril shows homogeneity of shading. No doubt in the ordinary muscle-fibres of arthropods, when we observe the so-called 'fixed' waves of contraction (fig. 167, A), there is often an apparent blurring of the cross-striation of the fibre just where the muscle is passing from extension to contraction, but this is explicable by the unequal pull of the contracted



FIG. 165.—ISOLATED SARCOUS ELEMENTS OF WING-MUSCLE OF WASP, SHOWING THE POROUS STRUCTURE. (E. Sharpey - Schafer.) $\times 2300$. Untouched photograph.

s, sarcous element seen in profile; s', s', two sarcous elements on the flat, seen in optical section; o, an oil drop.

parts of the fibrils upon those which are not yet contracted. The contraction in each fibre starts from the nerve ending, which is at one side of the fibre, and spreads first across the fibre and then tends to pass as a wave towards either end. The one side always has a start in the progress of this wave, and the fibrils must thus receive an unequal pull, so that they are shifted along one another and the line of cross-stripping is apt to be broken. That no transference of anisotropic substance



FIG. 167.—LEG-MUSCLE FIBRE OF *CHRYSOMELA CERULEA* WITH (FIXED) CONTRACTION-WAVE PHOTOGRAPHED UNDER POLARISING MICROSCOPE.

A, with uncrossed nicols; B, with crossed nicols.
Untouched photograph of a preparation by T. W. Engelmann.



FIG. 168.—WAVE OF CONTRACTION PASSING OVER A LEG-MUSCLE FIBRE OF *DYSTICUS*. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Highly magnified.

really occurs is at once clear from the appearance of the contracting fibre under polarised light (fig. 167, B), and the study of the isolated fibrils of wing-muscle gives no support to the theory of reversal. That the apparent reversal is not real is also illustrated by fig. 168, which represents a leg-muscle fibre of an insect in process of contraction. The dark bands of the contraction-wave are seen to be really due to accumulations of sarcoplasm. Owing to this having a higher index of refraction than the rest of the muscle-substance these accumulations appear as dark lines which not only obscure the continuity of the fibrils, but by contrast cause the whole of the sarcomeres between them to appear light.

LESSON XVI.

MUSCLE (*continued*).

1. To study the connexion of muscle with tendon, a frog is killed by destruction of the brain and spinal cord, and placed in about a litre of normal saline raised to a temperature of 55° C. It is left in this for 15 minutes, the liquid gradually cooling. It is then easy to dissociate the muscular fibres in large numbers. To observe their attachment to the tendon-bundles a fine longitudinal shred must be snipped off with scissors at the tendinous attachment, and dissociated upon a slide in a drop of Ringer. It will usually be found that the muscular substance is retracted from the end of the sarcolemma tube, which is firmly cemented to the tendon-bundle. The structure may be brought more distinctly into view by adding to the dissociated fibres a drop of solution of iodine in potassium iodide.

This method is the one recommended by Ranvier. The muscle-endings are also well seen at the extremities of the tendons which are removed from the mouse's tail in the manner described in Lesson X.

2. The blood-vessels of muscle. These are studied in fairly thick longitudinal and transverse sections or in flattened-out pieces of muscle injected with carmine gelatine. It will be noticed that the capillaries are very numerous, and form a network with oblong meshes. In the red muscles of the rabbit, small dilatations are seen on the transverse vessels of the network.

3. Heart-muscle. The arrangement of the muscular tissue of the heart will be considered later (Lesson XXVI.), but the tissue itself may be studied now in teased preparations and sections. To prepare these, place a small piece of heart-muscle, preferably from a young animal, in 33 per cent. alcohol for a few days; stain in dilute hæmatoxylin or borax-carmin solution for some days; tease in dilute glycerine.

4. Plain muscle. Tear off a small shred of the muscular coat of a piece of intestine which has been 48 hours or more in 1 in 2000 chromic acid. Hold the shred with forceps in a drop of distilled water on the slide and fray its edge with a needle. In this process many cells will be set free and can be seen with a low power. Remove the rest of the shred. The preparation may then be covered and examined with a high power. Sketch one of the cells. Then allow a drop of dilute Delafield's hæmatoxylin to diffuse under the cover-glass; to be followed by a drop of dilute glycerine. Cement cover-glass next day. Sketch a cell after staining.

Sections of involuntary muscle will be seen and studied along with those viscera which possess muscular coats.

CONNEXION WITH TENDON : BLOOD-VESSELS : DEVELOPMENT OF CROSS-STRIATED MUSCLE.

Ending of muscle in tendon.—A small tendon-bundle passes to the conical end of each muscular fibre and becomes firmly united with the sarcolemma which extends over the end of the fibre. Besides this attachment, a further

connexion is established by the fact that the areolar tissue between the tendon-bundles is continuous with that which lies between the muscle-fibres. There is probably no actual continuity between contractile substance and tendon.

Blood-vessels of muscle.—The capillaries of muscle are very numerous. They run, for the most part, longitudinally, with transverse branches, so as to form oblong meshes (fig. 169). No blood-vessels penetrate the sarcolemma. In the red muscles of the rabbit the transverse capillaries sometimes have small dilatations upon them (fig. 170).

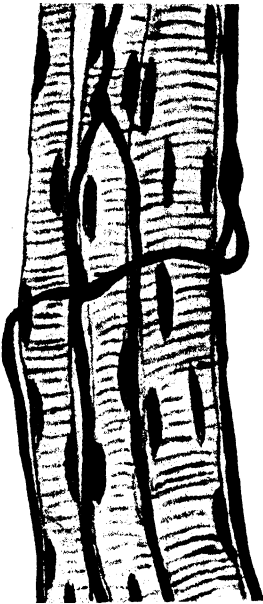


FIG. 169.—CAPILLARIES OF STRIATED MUSCLE-FIBRES. The vessels have been injected with Hydrokollag, a graphite suspension, and the nuclei counterstained with hæmatoxylin. (H.M.C.)

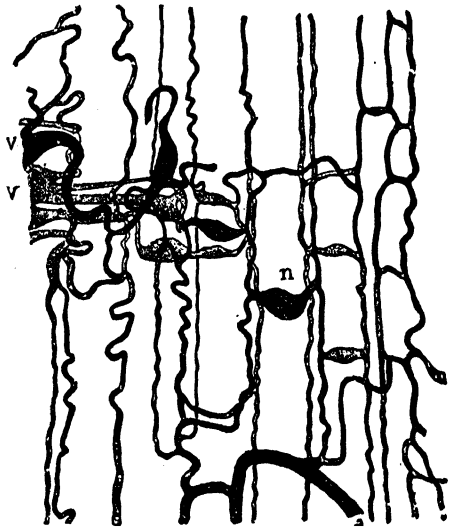


FIG. 170.—VASCULAR NETWORK OF A RED MUSCLE (SEMI-TENDINOSUS) OF THE RABBIT. (Ranvier.)

a, arteriole v, v, venules; n, dilatation on transverse branch of capillaries.

Lymph-vessels, although present in the connective-tissue sheath (perimysium) of a muscle, do not penetrate between the component fibres.

Nerves.—The motor nerves of voluntary muscles pierce the sarcolemma and terminate in ramified expansions known as *end-plates* or *motor-end-organs*; the sensory nerves end in groups of specially modified muscle-fibres known as *muscle-spindles* (Lesson XIX.). Sympathetic fibres, of unknown function, are also distributed to voluntary muscle.

Histogenesis of striated muscle.—Voluntary muscular fibres are developed from embryonic cells of the mesoderm (muscle-plate cells), which become elongated, and their nuclei multiplied, so as to produce long, slender, multi-

nucleated embryonic fibres (figs. 171 and 172). It is not quite certain whether, as has usually been supposed, the whole fibre is formed of a single enlarged cell, or whether it may be produced by the joining together, end to end, of a number of cells of the muscle-plate (or of more than one muscle-plate), so as to produce a syncytium, within which the striated fibrils make their appearance. The cross-striations appear at first along one side of the cell, the change gradually extending around the circumference and also penetrating towards the centre; but the protoplasm both at the middle of the fibre, to which the nuclei are at first confined, and at the side opposite to that at which the differentiation began, remains for some time unaltered in character. Eventually the change in structure extends to these parts also, and the nuclei pass gradually to occupy their ordinary position under the sarcolemma, which has by this time become formed. The young muscle-fibres are at first isolated, but after a time are seen in



FIG. 171.—DEVELOPING MUSCLE OF CHICK, AFTER FIVE DAYS' INCUBATION. LONGITUDINAL SECTION. (J. F. Tello.) $\times 600$.

a, muscle-cell with two nuclei; b, muscle-cell with three nuclei; c, group of two muscle-cells; d, muscle-cell with six nuclei; e, undifferentiated mesodermal cells.

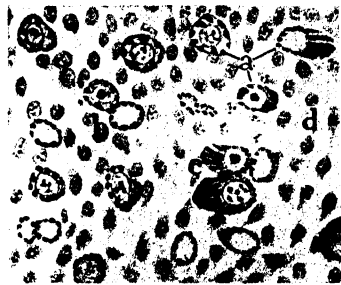


FIG. 172.—DEVELOPING MUSCLE OF CHICK, AFTER SEVEN DAYS' INCUBATION. TRANSVERSE SECTION. (J. F. Tello.) $\times 600$.

a, three isolated muscle-fibres showing differentiation at periphery; b, a group of two muscle-fibres; c, a group of three; d, developing connective tissue.

groups (fig. 172). It is uncertain whether the groups are formed by longitudinal splitting of the original primitive fibre or by the differentiation of adjacent cells to form other muscle-fibres.

The mode of development of the sarcolemma has not been clearly made out; it is regarded by some as a connective-tissue structure, by others as a specialised region of the outer layer of the sarcoplasm.

CARDIAC MUSCLE.

The muscular substance of the heart is composed of transversely striated muscle-fibres, which differ from those of voluntary muscle in the following

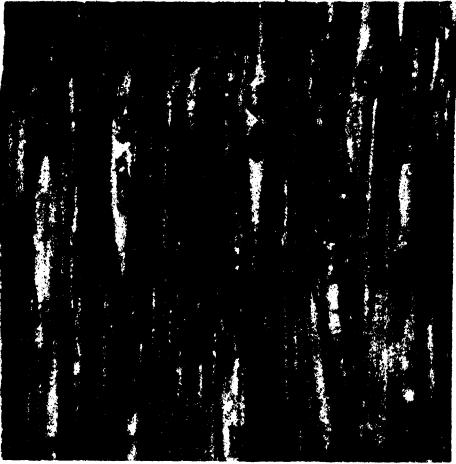


FIG. 173.—HEART-MUSCLE IN LONGITUDINAL SECTION: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 400$. Photograph.

Note the interruptions on the fibres, stained darkly, and the nuclei, mostly in pairs, in clear sarcoplasm in the middle of the fibre.

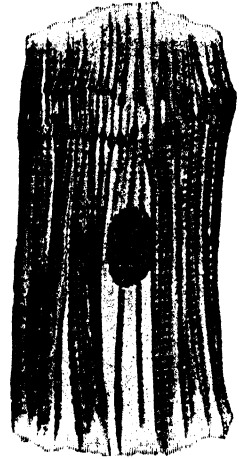
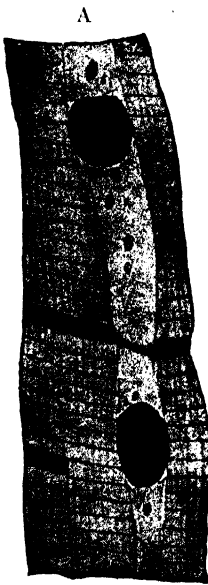
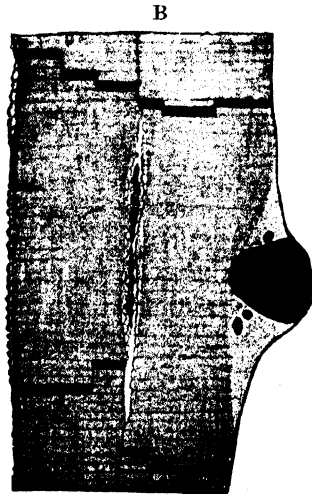


FIG. 174.—PORTION OF CARDIAC MUSCLE EXHIBITING CONTINUITY OF FIBRILS ACROSS JUNCTIONAL LINE. (Przewosky.) Highly magnified.



A



B

FIG. 175.—PORTIONS OF MUSCLE-FIBRES FROM THE ADULT HUMAN HEART. (v. Palczewska.)

In A one of the so-called septa or intercalary disks traverses the protoplasm which extends between the nuclei as well as the striated substance. A second incomplete septum is also shown.

In B a nucleus is seen at the surface, and serves to render the investing membrane apparent. Notice the zigzagging of the septa, an appearance which is not infrequent.

particulars, viz., (1) their striations are less marked; (2) they have no distinct sarcolemma, although they may have a thin superficial layer of non-fibrillated substance; (3) they branch, and unite by their branches, and also at the side, with neighbouring fibres; (4) their nuclei lie in or near the centre of the fibres. In man and many mammals the fibres exhibit transverse markings apparently dividing them into a series of short cylindrical segments (fig. 173), joined together end to end and side to side; often there seems to be a nucleus corresponding to each portion. The transverse markings are evident in longitudinal sections of appropriately stained fixed tissue and are generally known as the *intercallary disks*: they also come distinctly into

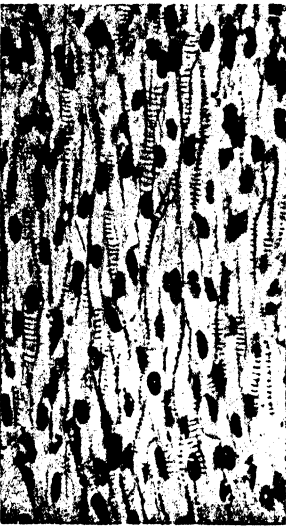


FIG. 176.—SECTION FROM HEART OF FIVE MONTHS' EMBRYO: HUMAN. (G. Mann.)

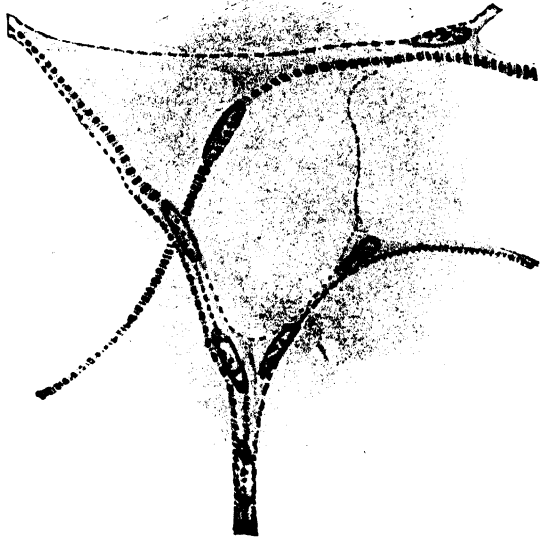


FIG. 177.—SYNCYTIUM OF HEART-MUSCLE OF AURICLE OF FROG-EMBRYO, SHOWING MUSCLE-FIBRILS PASSING FROM CELL TO CELL. (G. Mann.) Highly magnified.

view in preparations stained with nitrate of silver. They are bridged by the muscle-fibrils, which are thus in continuity from one segment to the next (fig. 174). These transverse markings were regarded by Schweigger-Seidel, who first described them, as intercellular septa (cell-junctions) for they resemble intercellular substance in staining with silver nitrate. But other authorities have taken different views regarding the transverse markings. H. E. Jordan regards them as due to fixed localised contractions, while Martin Heidenhain considers that they represent portions of the fibres at which growth in length occurs (analogous to the suture-lines between the flat bones of the cranium). As against these views of the transverse septa, and in favour of the original view of Schweigger-Seidel, must be set the silver-staining of the supposed cell-junctions, and the fact that it is easily possible in some animals to separate the fibres after maceration into short

uninucleated fragments. Schweigger-Seidel's view is upheld by v. Palczewska and Werner (working with Zimmermann), who studied the subject in the heart of man and of various mammals. These observers point out, as had been previously done, that the short non-nucleated segments often seen,

which Heidenhain regards as fatal to the cell-theory of cardiac muscle, may be parts of cells lying in other planes of the myocardium, which are inserted between those belonging to the plane included in the longitudinal section. On the other hand, the continuity of the muscle-fibrils within the masses of Purkinje's fibres under the endocardium in the sheep, the fibrils belonging to one cell being freely continued into

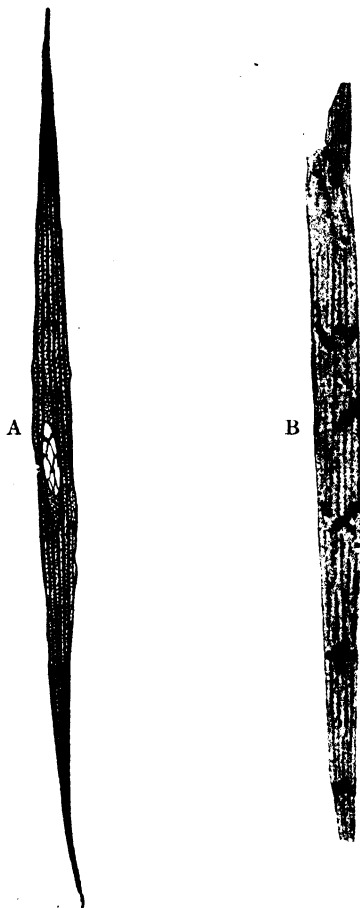


FIG. 178.—SMOOTH MUSCLE-FIBRES FROM INTESTINE OF CAT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

A, a complete cell showing the nucleus and longitudinal fibrillation visible only after fixation and staining. $\times 250$.

B, part of a cell showing the nucleus and the coarser fibrils. Photograph. $\times 450$.



FIG. 179.—MIDDLE PART OF A SMOOTH MUSCLE-FIBRE SHOWING FINE LONGITUDINAL STRIATION AND ELONGATED NUCLEUS.

The centriole is seen opposite an indentation in the nucleus. (v. Lenhossék.)

those of the neighbouring cells, is in favour of a syncytial theory of the structure of heart-muscle. Indeed, in many vertebrates, including some mammals, no cell-territories can be made out in the myocardium. It has been concluded (Marcus) from high power observations that the myofibrils in man are tubular, consisting of an outer layer containing fluid contents.

Histogenesis of cardiac muscle.—The explanation of these differences appears to be that heart-muscle at an early period of development is a syncytium within which the contractile fibres are developed, and that a differentiation of the syncytium into cells is only produced later. Even then the lines of junction are bridged across by muscle-fibrils. And in some animals a differentiation into separate cell-territories is incomplete or altogether lacking.

Further details regarding its muscular structure will be given when the heart as a whole is treated of (Lesson XXVI.).

NON-STRIATED, PLAIN OR INVOLUNTARY MUSCLE.

Non-striated or plain muscular tissue is composed of elongated fusiform cells (fig. 181), which vary much in length. In cross-section they are usually angular, an appearance due to mutual compression (fig. 180). The cell-nucleus is either oval or rod-shaped; it has the usual structure and commonly



FIG. 180.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF PLAIN MUSCLE-FIBRES OF INTESTINE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 400$. Photograph.

one or two nucleoli. There is a centriole—sometimes double—close to the nucleus (fig. 179). Mitochondria and a few Golgi bodies are also present.

The cell-substance is finely fibrillated longitudinally in stained preparations, but does not exhibit cross-striæ like voluntary and cardiac muscle. Very careful observation (E. B. Meigs) of living smooth muscle-fibres failed to reveal any trace of longitudinal fibrils. These would hence seem to be a fixation artefact. There appears to be a delicate external layer, probably a stratum of undifferentiated protoplasm, not a true sarcolemma. Next to

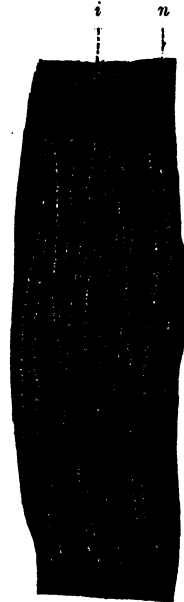


FIG. 181.—MUSCLE-CELLS OF INTESTINE. (Szymonowicz.) Magnified 530 diameters.

The fibres are represented in longitudinal section; the interstices between them are seen to be bridged across by fine fibrils. *i*, interstice; *n*, nucleus.

this, in some smooth muscle, is a layer containing coarser fibrils (boundary fibrils of M. Heidenhain) (fig. 178, B). Frequently there is seen a series of irregularly placed transverse markings which appear as knot-like condensations of the cell-substance (fig. 178, B) staining somewhat differently from the rest of the cell; these are produced by localised contractions at the moment of death of the cell; the fibrils are enlarged as they run through the knots. The intercellular substance has been described as being bridged by filaments passing from cell to cell (fig. 181), but these may be artefacts.

Plain muscular tissue is found chiefly in the walls of hollow viscera; thus it forms the muscular coat of the stomach and intestines, and occurs abundantly in the muscular coat of the œsophagus, although it is here intermixed with cross-striated muscle; it is found also in the mucous membrane of the whole alimentary canal from the œsophagus downwards in the shape of the muscularis mucosæ; in the trachea and its ramifications; in the urinary bladder and ureters; in the uterus and Fallopian tubes; in the prostate; in the spleen and lymphatic glands; forming the muscle of Muller in the orbit, and the ciliary muscle and iris-musculature. The walls of gland-ducts also contain it; and the middle coat of the arteries, veins, and lymphatics is largely composed of this tissue. It occurs in the skin, both in the secreting parts of the sweat glands and in small bundles attached to the hair-follicles; in the scrotum it is found abundantly in the subcutaneous tissue (dartos); it also occurs in the mammary gland in the areola of the nipple.

The smooth muscle-fibres of the uterus are remarkable for the hypertrophy which they undergo during pregnancy. They are then said to increase their length to 500 μ —an approximate increase to ten times their normal length.

Histogenesis of plain muscle.—C. M'Gill states that the smooth muscle of the alimentary canal (pig) is developed from a syncytium of mesenchyme cells which surrounds the endoderm. Some of these cells become elongated and spindle-shaped while retaining their interconnexion. Myofibrils are developed in their protoplasm. These need not be confined to the limits of a single cell, but may extend over a number of cells. The myofibrils are of two kinds, coarse and fine, varying in relative number in different parts. As stated above, an interconnexion of the cells obtains even in the fully formed muscle, which thus retains something of its syncytial character.

In certain situations plain muscle is formed from ectoderm; this is the case with the muscular tissue of the sweat glands (Ranvier) and with that of the alveoli of the mammary gland. It is also true for the muscular tissue of the iris (Nussbaum).

LESSON XVII.

NERVE-FIBRES.

1. **TEASE** rapidly a piece of fresh nerve (vagus of cat or rabbit); either in Ringer or by the method of semi-desiccation, keeping the preparation moist by the breath, afterwards mounting in Ringer. Touch the fibres as little and obtain them as long and straight as possible. Study the myelinate fibres, carefully noticing all the structures that are visible—viz., nodes of Ranvier, nuclei of neurolemma, double contour of myelin-sheath, segments, etc. Besides the ordinary fibres, some very fine myelinate fibres, and some amyelinate, will be seen in this preparation. Draw a short length of one or more very exactly.

2. Excise a short length of a small nerve and lay it out on a piece of card which is then floated, nerve downwards, on the surface of a 0.5 per cent. solution of osmic acid. After 24 or 48 hours remove the nerve from the card and place the former for 24 hours in a dish of water. Then transfer to 33 per cent. alcohol *plus* 5 to 10 per cent. of glycerine. Leave therein for a few days; then dissociate on the slide in dilute glycerine. (*Note*: nerves may be stored apparently indefinitely, for class purposes, in the alcohol-glycerine fluid.) Sketch two portions of a fibre under a high power, one showing a node of Ranvier and the other a nucleus of the neurolemma. Look for amyelinate fibres.

3. Mount in dammar transverse and longitudinal sections of nerve fixed (*a*) with Susa or 5 per cent. formol followed by alcohol, (*b*) with 1 per cent. osmic acid followed by alcohol. The sections from (*a*) may be stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin. The nerve should be laid out straight upon a piece of card as recommended in § 2. Examine the sections first with a low and afterwards with a high power. Notice the lamellar structure of the perineurium, the varying size of the nerve-fibres, the axis-cylinder in the centre of each fibre, etc. Sketch a small portion of a section.

4. Teased preparations and longitudinal sections from the peripheral portions of nerves, cut seven, fourteen and twenty-one days before killing the animal. The nerves are prepared with osmic acid as in § 2. Notice the breaking up of the myelin of the sheath, varying in degree according to the length of time the lesion was made previous to death.

In longitudinal sections of the central cut end of the nerve, prepared by Cajal's reduced silver method (see Appendix), new fibres may be seen budding from the extremities of the fibres of the stump.

STRUCTURE OF NERVE-FIBRES.

Nerve-fibres are of two kinds, *myelinate* and *amyelinate* (*medullated* and *non-medullated*). The cerebro-spinal nerves and the white matter of the nerve-centres are composed chiefly of myelinate fibres; the sympathetic nerves near their peripheral distribution are largely made of amyelinate fibres. The latter are also found in considerable numbers in the vagus.

The **myelinate, medullated or white fibres** are characterised, as their

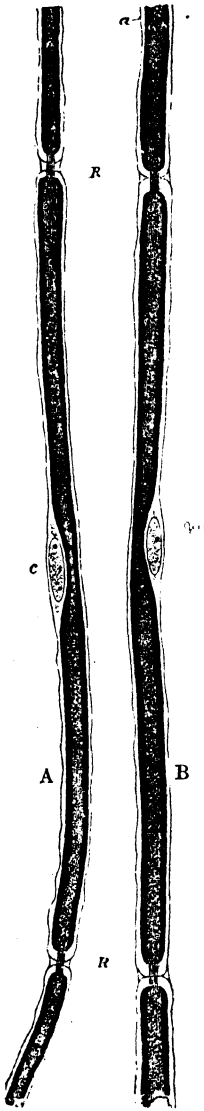


FIG. 182.—PORTIONS OF TWO NERVE-FIBRES STAINED WITH OSMIC ACID. Diagrammatic. Drawn by J. E. Neale.

R, R, nodes or constrictions of Ranvier, with axis-cylinder passing through. a, neurolemma of the nerve; c, opposite the middle of the segment, indicates the nucleus and protoplasm lying between the neurolemma and the myelin sheath.



FIG. 183.

FIG. 183.—A SMALL PART OF A MYELINATE FIBRE, FRESH. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Very highly magnified. Photograph.

The fibre looks in optical section like a tube—hence the term tubular formerly applied to these fibres. Three partial breaches of continuity or clefts are seen in the myelin sheath, which at these places exhibits a tendency to split into laminae. Elsewhere the myelin shows coagulation appearances. At n is a nucleus belonging to the neurolemma; the outline of the nucleus itself is not focused.



FIG. 184.

FIG. 184.—MYELINATE NERVE-FIBRE, FRESH, SHOWING A NODE OF RANVIER. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Very highly magnified. Photograph.

The coagulation of the substance of the myelin sheath is advanced, and the axis-cylinder is slightly shrunken away from it, and is thus rendered distinctly visible. In places the axis-cylinder shows a fibrillar appearance.

name implies, by the presence of the *myelin sheath* or *white substance of Schwann*. This is a layer of semi-fluid material which encircles the essential part of a nerve-fibre, viz., the *axis-cylinder*. Outside the myelin sheath is a delicate but tough homogeneous membrane, the *neurolemma* (*nucleated sheath of Schwann*); this is not present in all myelinate fibres, being absent from those within the central nervous system, including the optic nerve.

The *myelin sheath* is composed of a highly refracting lipo-protein material known as myelin, which gives a characteristic double contour and tubular



FIG. 185.—NERVE-FIBRES FROM SCIATIC NERVE INCLUDING, BESIDES SEVERAL ORDINARY LARGE MYELINATE FIBRES, AN AMYELINATE FIBRE AND A FINE MYELINATE FIBRE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Osmic preparation. $\times 300$. Photograph.

appearance to the nerve-fibre. It affords a continuous investment to the axis-cylinder, except that, as was shown by Ranvier, in peripheral nerve-fibres it is interrupted at regular intervals. At these places the neurolemma appears to produce constrictions in the nerve-fibre (figs. 182, 184, 185), the *nodes of Ranvier*, the latter term having been applied from the resemblance which they bear to the nodes of a bamboo. It is uncertain whether the constriction is entirely occupied by neurolemma or partly by a special band (*constricting band of Ranvier*); if the latter, it is composed of a material which resembles intercellular substance in being stained with silver nitrate. The segment of nerve between two successive nodes is termed an *internode* and in the middle of each internode is one of the nuclei of the neurolemma



FIG. 186.—NERVE-FIBRE PREPARED WITH OSMIC ACID. Magnified about 500 diameters. Photograph.

A constriction of Ranvier is seen. The intervals between the myelin segments appear as clear oblique lines.

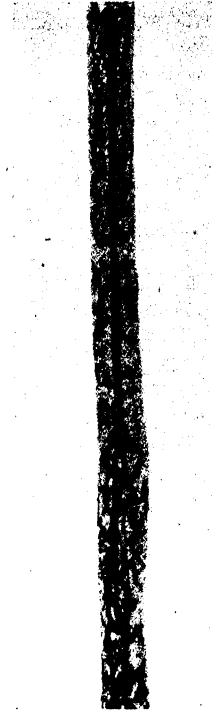


FIG. 187.—RETICULUM OF NEUROKERATIN IN MYELIN SHEATH OF NERVE-FIBRE. Magnified 600 diameters. Photograph.



FIG. 188.—GOLGI RETICULAR APPARATUS, A IN MYELINATE FIBRES AND B IN AMYELINATE FIBRES. (R. y Cajal.)

(fig. 182). The length of the internode is usually proportionate to its diameter, the larger fibres thus having the longer internodes. Besides these interruptions the myelin sheath may show a variable number of oblique clefts (figs. 183, 186, 189), subdividing it into conico-cylindrical portions of variable length (*myelin segments*); there is reason to believe that the clefts are artificially produced. At the clefts there is a laminated appearance in the myelin sheath, especially after treatment of the nerve with certain reagents; sometimes the clefts look as if they contain spiral fibres. Almost certainly, however, all these appearances are artefacts and do not represent pre-existing structures.

The myelin sheath contains mitochondria, for the most part disposed radially. A reticular appearance has also been described in the myelin sheath after fixation with alcohol, the *neurokeratin network* of Kühne (fig. 187), but it varies greatly in aspect and is certainly produced by the action of the reagents employed to show it. Osmic acid stains the myelin sheath black (figs. 189 to 192).

The *neurolemma* is a thin homogeneous sheath which closely invests the myelin sheath of the peripheral nerve-fibres but is absent from the fibres of the central nervous system. It is the toughest part of the fibre and remains unbroken if the nerve is pinched, whereby both the myelin sheath and the axis-cylinder may be ruptured. The oval nuclei seen at regular intervals along the nerve-fibre midway between the nodes embedded in the myelin sheath belong to the neurolemma, as well as a small amount of protoplasm, containing a Golgi apparatus which adjoins each nucleus (fig. 188, A). The neurolemma dips inwards at the nodes of Ranvier and thus produces the interruptions of the myelin sheath. Nerve-fibres within the central nervous system, which do not possess a neurolemma, show no interruptions.

The *axis-cylinder*, which runs along the middle of the nerve-fibre, is a soft, transparent thread which is continuous from end to end of the fibre. On account of the peculiar refractive nature of the myelin sheath it is difficult to see the axis-cylinder in the fresh nerve except at the nodes, where it may be observed stretching across the interruptions in the myelin sheath; it may also sometimes be seen projecting from a broken end of a nerve-fibre. It often shows after fixation an appearance of extremely fine longitudinal fibrils known as *neuro-fibrils* (fig. 189). They are seen isolated at



FIG. 189.—LONGITUDINAL AND TRANSVERSE SECTION OF MYELINATE NERVE-FIBRE OF FROG (OSMIC ACID AND ACID FUCHSIN.) (After Biedermann.)

The longitudinal section shows one node of Ranvier and two myelin clefts. The fibrillar structure of the axis-cylinder is shown in both longitudinal and transverse section.

the terminations of nerves, as in the cornea, and are also visible in the section of a nerve-fibre as fine dots (fig. 208), which sometimes appear to have a clear centre, as if the fibrils were tubular. The axis-cylinder contains delicate rod-like mitochondria, disposed longitudinally. Neither the axis-cylinders nor their neuro-fibrils are to be looked upon as solid structures, in spite of the wire-like appearance which the latter exhibit after fixation and staining. For there is no doubt that the whole nerve-fibre, with the exception of the neurolemma, is quite soft; probably of the consistency of a viscous fluid.

Observations on the giant nerve-fibres of squids support this (J. Z. Young,

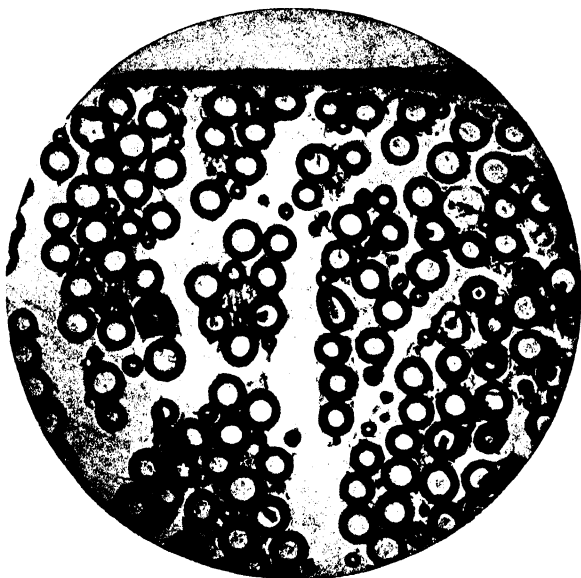


FIG. 190.—SECTION OF THE SCIATIC NERVE OF A CAT, SHOWING THE VARIATIONS IN SIZE OF ITS CONSTITUENT FIBRES. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 300$. Photograph. The nerve was fixed with osmic acid.

1936). Some of these fibres have axons as much as $200\ \mu$ in diameter. On cutting the sheath of the living fibre the substance of the axon streams out. Another interesting observation is that, although neuro-fibrils cannot be seen in the *uninjured* sheath, section of this causes a longitudinal fibrillation to appear in that part of the axon which is close to the cut surface. But, as the axoplasm flows out, the fibrillations disappear.

Myelinate nerve-fibres vary greatly in size (figs. 190, 191), but may be classified as *large*, *intermediate*, and *very small*. The largest are those which are passing to the skin and to the voluntary muscles; the smallest are those destined for viscera and blood-vessels; these constitute the preganglionic autonomic nerves of Langley. The larger fibres have a diameter of $30\ \mu$ or more; the intermediate vary from 10 to $4\ \mu$, while the smallest are only

some $2\ \mu$ in diameter. As shown by W. H. Gaskell, the ventral roots of the last one or two cervical nerves, of all the thoracic, of the first and second lumbar, and of the second and third sacral nerves contain, besides the ordinary large myelinate fibres, bundles of these very small fibres. Some of the cranial nerves (spinal accessory, vagus, glosso-pharyngeal, facial) contain similar very fine myelinate fibres, intermixed with the larger fibres.

The term 'autonomic' was introduced by Langley to include both the fibres of the sympathetic system and the analogous fibres (parasympathetic) proceeding from the cranial and sacral regions. All autonomic nerves consist (1) of fine myelinate 'preganglionic fibres' arising in the central nervous system and ending in ganglia, and (2) of amyelinate 'postganglionic fibres' arising in the ganglia and passing thence to their peripheral distribution.



FIG. 191.—NERVE-FIBRES FROM A TEASED PREPARATION OF VAGUS OF CAT FIXED WITH OSMIC ACID. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 300$. Photograph.

About a dozen amyelinate fibres are included in the photograph. Besides these one ordinary myelinate fibre and three fine and probably intermediate fibres are seen.

Although amyelinate and myelinate fibres are usually treated in text-books as quite distinct in character, this probably is not the case. Recent work (F. O. Schmitt and R. S. Bear, 1936) indicates that the birefringence characteristic of the myelinated fibre is only found in fibres of about $2\ \mu$ in diameter and upwards. Further, this birefringency can be correlated with the gradual increase in the lipid content of the sheath as the size of the fibre increases.

Amyelinate (non-medullated) fibres.—Intermingled with the myelinate fibres there may always, in peripheral nerves, be found a certain number of fibres devoid of the distinct double contour which is characteristic of the presence of a myelin sheath. These are the *grey* or *amyelinate fibres*, also called, after their discoverer, *fibres of Remak* (figs. 191, 192). They are beset

with numerous nuclei which have usually been regarded as belonging to a delicate sheath, although it must be admitted that the nuclei often appear



FIG. 192.—SECTION OF THORACIC SYMPATHETIC CORD OF CAT. (Fischer.) Osmic acid preparation.

1, Epineurium, with fat-cells (stained black); 2, perineurium; 3, 4, fine myelinate fibres; 5, amyelinate fibres.

to lie in the substance of the fibres rather than at their surface. A reticular apparatus of Golgi is closely related to each nucleus (fig. 188, B). As just stated, all the autonomic nerves, when they approach their peripheral distribution, are chiefly made up of fibres of this nature (the so-called postganglionic fibres); whereas the preganglionic fibres, both of sympathetic and of other autonomic nerves, always possess a thin myelin sheath, and have the usual structure of myelinate fibres.

By the pyridine silver method of staining, it can be shown that the ordinary nerves of the limbs contain a very large number of amyelinate fibres—which, according to S. W. Ransom, are derived only in part from the sympathetic but mainly from the small cells of the spinal ganglia.

Microscopic anatomy of a nerve-trunk.—In their course through the body the nerve-fibres are gathered up into round bundles or *funiculi* and these are again united to form the nerves met with in dissection (fig. 193). The connective tissue which connects the funiculi and invests the whole

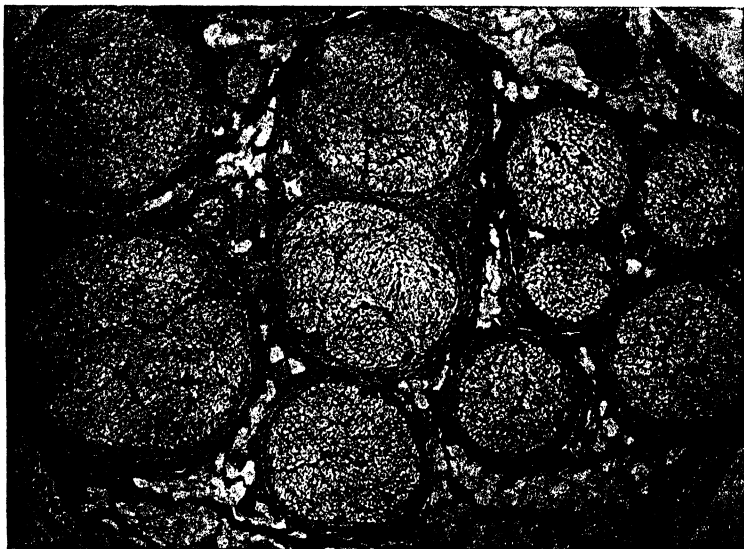


FIG. 193.—SECTION OF PART OF SCIATIC NERVE OF MAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Preparation by H. Pringle. $\times 60$. Photograph.

A dozen funiculi of various sizes are included in the photograph. The fat-cells in the epineurium appear as clear spaces.

nerve, uniting it to neighbouring parts and conveying to it blood-vessels, lymphatics, and even nerve-fibres destined for its coats, is termed the *epineurium*; it frequently contains fat-cells. That which ensheathes the funiculi is known as the *perineurium*. It has a lamellar structure, the lamellæ being composed of connective tissue covered by flattened endothelial cells. Between the lamellæ are clefts which convey lymph from the interior of the funiculus to the lymphatics of the perineurium. The delicate connective tissue which lies between the nerve-fibres of the funiculus is termed *endoneurium*. The longitudinally arranged meshwork of blood-capillaries is conveyed in it; its interstices communicate with the lymph-clefts of the perineurium.

The vacuolated appearance which the medullated fibre presents in sections fixed and stained by ordinary methods is due to the myelin having been dissolved.

All the branches of a nerve, and even single nerve-fibres which are passing to their distribution, are invested with a prolongation of the perineural sheath, often of considerable thickness, known as the *sheath of Henle*.

The nerve-trunks themselves receive sensory nerve-fibres (*nervi nervorum*) which ramify chiefly in the perineurium and terminate within this in end-bulbs (Horsley).

Nerves contain few blood-vessels, from which it may be inferred that their metabolism is not active. The degenerative processes which occur in cut nerve-fibres as well as the subsequent reparative processes are dependent on the nerve-cells from which the fibres take origin and will be dealt with after the structure of nerve-cells has been studied (see p. 183).

LESSON XVIII.

NERVE-CELLS.

1. **STUDY** stained sections of ganglia, both spinal and sympathetic. These serve to show the general arrangement of cells and fibres in the ganglion and the nucleated sheaths around the nerve cells.

The ganglia are fixed in Susa (see Appendix) or in 5 per cent. formol. They may be stained in hæmatoxylin and eosin.

2. Golgi's silver chromate method, or Cajal's silver reduction method, especially the latter, are useful for showing the connexions of ganglion-cells with nerve-fibres. (See Appendix.)

3. Take a small fragment of the grey matter from a piece of spinal cord of ox or calf after a few days' maceration in very dilute chromic acid solution (1 in 2000) or in 33 per cent. alcohol. Choose by preference a piece from the lumbar enlargement (ventral horn). Spread the fragment out with needles into a fairly even film on a slide. Immerse in alcohol for a few minutes. Stain with 1 per cent. aqueous methylene blue for 2 minutes. Rinse with water, dry completely and mount in dammar. Notice the large branching cells, some with a mass of pigment near the nucleus. Observe the fibrillation of the cell-processes. Many axis-cylinders of nerves will be seen in this preparation deprived wholly or partially of myelin sheath; their fibrillar structure can be seen.

4. **Examine** sections of spinal cord, medulla oblongata, and brain fixed in Susa or 96 per cent. alcohol stained with methylene blue by Nissl's method (see Appendix), to exhibit the angular particles within the nerve-cells.

5. **Examine** sections of parts of brain, spinal cord, and ganglia prepared by Cajal's silver reduction method to exhibit the neurofibrils in the cells and cell-processes. These preparations are best made from young animals.

6. **Examine** the nerve-cells and neuroglia-cells in sections from the spinal cord, cerebrum, or cerebellum of a small animal, *e.g.*, young rat or kitten, prepared by Golgi's method. (See Appendix.)

7. **Examine** sections of spinal cord (lumbar enlargement) and of corresponding spinal ganglia taken from an animal in which the sciatic nerve was cut about three weeks before it was killed. The sections are stained by Nissl's method after fixation in Susa or 96 per cent. alcohol. Most of the ventral horn nerve-cells and the ganglion-cells on the side of the lesion will exhibit chromatolysis (breaking down of the Nissl granules) which is characteristic of cells the axons of which have been severed. The altered cells may be compared with the normal cells on the intact side.

It will be better to defer preparations 4, 5, 6, and 7 until the central nervous system is studied.

STRUCTURE OF NERVE-CELLS.

A nerve-cell consists of a cell-body and cell-processes (fig. 194). One of the processes is always a nerve-fibre or the axis-cylinder of a nerve-fibre. The cell-bodies lie either in the grey matter of the nerve centres, or in little

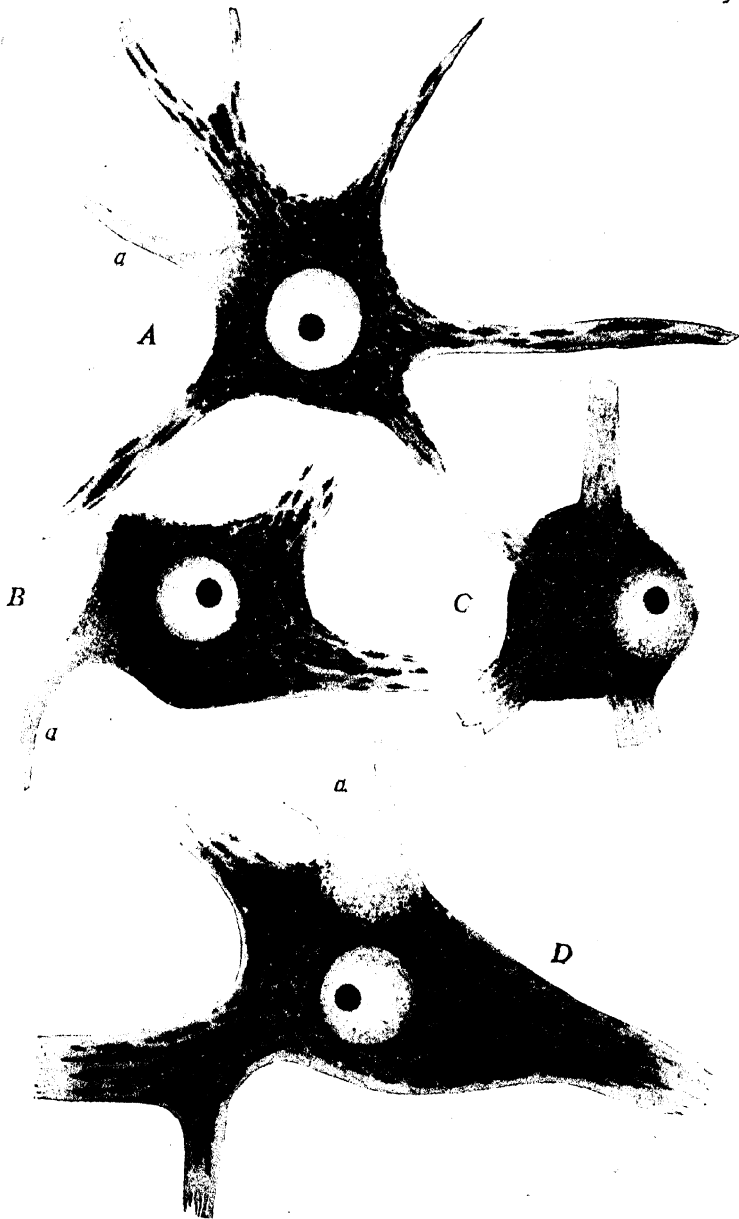


FIG. 194.—NERVE-CELLS STAINED BY NISSL'S METHOD. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
 × 750.

A, from ventral horn of spinal cord, monkey; *a*, commencing axon. *B* and *C*, from facial nucleus, dog. *C* shows Nissl degeneration consequent on section of the facial nerve fifteen days previous to death. *D*, from reticular formation of pons, dog; *a*, part of cell which gives origin to axon.

groups on the course of certain of the peripheral nerves ; these groups cause nodular enlargements, known as *ganglia*. The most conspicuous ganglia are those found upon the dorsal (posterior) roots of the spinal nerves, upon the roots of some of the cranial nerves, and upon the trunk and principal branches of the sympathetic. Minute ganglia are also found very numerous in connexion with the nerves which are supplied to glands and involuntary

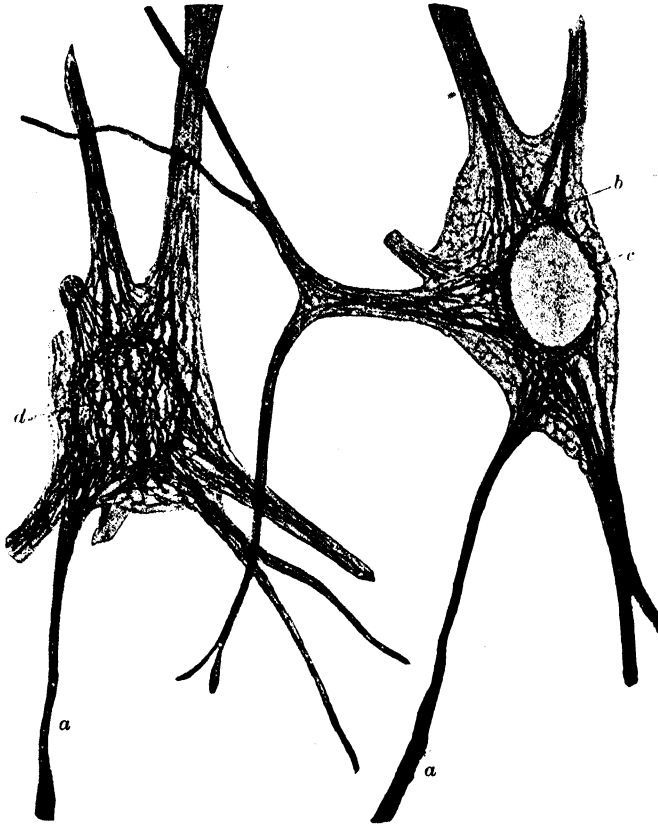


FIG. 195.—NERVE-CELLS OF KITTEN (FROM THE ANTERIOR CORPORA QUADRIGEMINA) SHOWING NEURO-FIBRILS. (R. y Cajal.)

a, a, axons ; b, c, d, various parts of the intracellular plexus of fibrils.

muscular tissue, as in the salivary glands, heart, alimentary canal, bladder, uterus, etc.

Nerve-cells vary much in size and shape ; many are large, some being among the largest cells met with in the body, but others are quite small. The *cell-body*, usually erroneously termed the 'nerve-cell,' is the part of the cell containing the nucleus. The latter is large and generally spherical and contains a very distinct nucleolus, readily displaced in the living cell (as by centrifuging). All nerve-cells possess at least one process ; this is the *axon* (*nerve-fibre process, axis-cylinder process*) ; it becomes either an myelinate

nerve-fibre or the axis-cylinder of a myelinate fibre. If other processes are present they branch almost from their commencement at the cell-body, and are, therefore, termed *dendrites* or *dendrons*.

The following structures have been described in the cytoplasm of nerve-cells.

1. Neuro-fibrils.—With certain methods fine fibrils can be seen (fig. 195) passing from the axon and dendrons into the body of the cell, where they form an intricate plexus. As to whether neuro-fibrils exist as such in living vertebrate nerve-cells and fibres is doubtful. But their study is of value as an index of the activity of the cell, for their thickness is said to vary in different physiological states (Cajal and Tello). Since neuro-fibrils have only been observed in nerve cells we must conclude that these cells have some preformed arrangement of the cytoplasm inherent to them. Possibly the effect of the reagents used to demonstrate neuro-fibrils is to precipitate the cytoplasmic colloids along certain lines of action.

2. Nissl bodies.—These are angular masses of granular material (chromophil substance (fig. 194), with affinity for basic dyes. The Nissl bodies

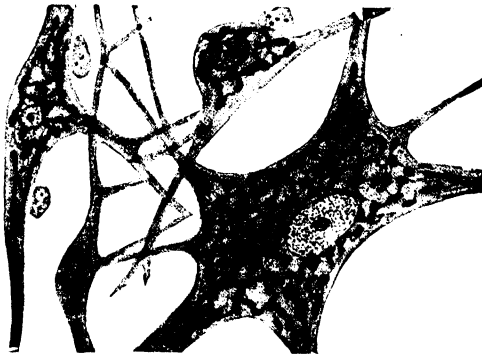


FIG. 196.—RETICULAR APPARATUS OF GOLGI WITHIN NERVE-CELLS OF SPINAL CORD. (R. y Cajal.)

extend some way along the dendrons, but the axon, and the part of the cytoplasm from which it springs, is free from them. The Nissl granules change in number and size with the physiological condition of the cell. Thus nerve-cells of which the axis-cylinder process has been cut (fig. 194, C) show the Nissl granules becoming disintegrated; they may even disappear for a time from the cell. A similar result is found to occur after the action of poisons which especially affect the nervous system. Nissl granules appear to consist chemically mainly of nucleoprotein. They contain organically combined iron (A. B. Macallum).

Nissl granules cannot be seen in living cells, even with dark-ground illumination. They tend to be especially clear after fixation in violent protoplasmic coagulants such as strong alcohol. The evidence points to their substance being finely dispersed during life and aggregated by fixation. It is true that bodies resembling them have been photographed with ultra-

violet light in fresh, dissociated nerve cells (Weimann ; Stöhr). Such cells, however, cannot be regarded as being under normal conditions in view of the inevitable trauma in removing them and the absence of a blood-supply when being photographed. The observations of J. Z. Young (p. 164) may well find their counterpart here. Nissl bodies are not present in all nerve-cells, being absent from many of the smaller cells of the grey matter of the brain. In the ganglion-cells they are not nearly as large and conspicuous as in the large multipolar cells of the spinal cord, but are more numerous, and are arranged concentrically with the nucleus. In the sympathetic cells they are

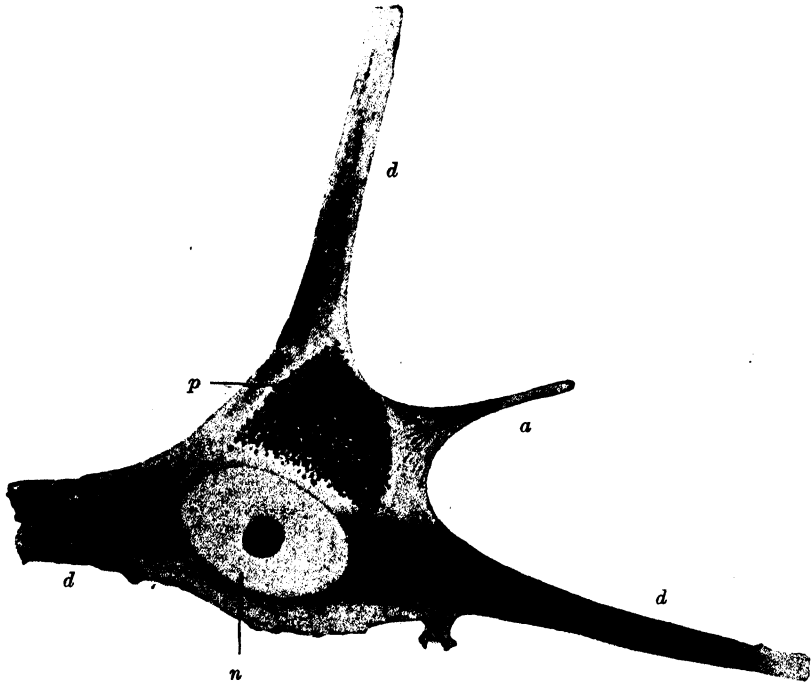


FIG. 197.—A NERVE-CELL FROM THE HUMAN SPINAL CORD. (From Prenant, Bouin, and Maillard.)

a, axon ; *d*, *d*, dendrons ; *n*, nucleus with nucleolus ; *p*, clump of pigment-granules.

also small and generally occupy a more peripheral position in the cell-body than in the spinal ganglion-cells.

3. **Mitochondria.**—These are scattered through the cytoplasm as small rodlets and granules. They can be seen in the living cell with dark-ground illumination and can be specifically stained with Janus green *intra vitam*.

4. **Golgi apparatus** (fig. 196).—This requires special methods of fixation and staining ; it is not visible in the living cell, examined either by transmitted light or by dark-ground illumination. In fixed specimens it appears as a varicose network, extending partly into the dendrons but not into the axon. Some observations of Covell and Scott constitute important evidence on this matter. They found that, on staining with neutral red, typical

vacuoles could be demonstrated in fresh isolated nerve-cells. On treating the latter with those metallic impregnation methods used for demonstrating the Golgi apparatus, the vacuoles were seen to coalesce; a meshwork was thus formed and this, in its turn, took up the metallic impregnation. Variations in nerve-cell activity apparently do not affect the Golgi apparatus, but following section of the axon it fragments and becomes peripherally displaced (Penfield).

5. **Pigment.**—Many nerve-cells have a clump of pigment granules (fig. 197), containing lipoids, at one side of the nucleus. This is especially marked at certain localities (*locus caeruleus*, *locus niger*), and is more frequent in man than in the lower animals. The pigment tends to increase in amount as age advances.

6. **Centrosome.**—This is lacking in the adult nerve-cell, and is perhaps related to the circumstance that fully developed nerve-cells never multiply and, when damaged, are never replaced.

Processes of nerve-cells.—As already intimated the processes are of two kinds. The first kind is the *axis-cylinder process* (Deiters) or *nerve-fibre process*, so called because in myelinate nerve-fibres it becomes the axis-cylinder (fig. 198, *a*, *a'*); in amyelinate fibres it forms the nerve-fibre itself. It is also known as the *axon*, although the term *neuron*¹ would better express the fact that it is the actual nerve-fibre.

No fully developed nerve-cell is without this process. The place where it arises from the body of the nerve-cell (*cone of origin*) is marked off from the rest of the cell-substance by absence of Nissl granules (see fig. 194). The other processes of the nerve-cell are those which were termed by Deiters 'protoplasmic processes,' but are now usually termed the *dendrons* or *dendrites*, and are generally multiple, whereas the axon is single. The dendrons are characterised by the fact that as soon as they leave the cell they begin to ramify like the roots of a tree, whereas the axis-cylinder process usually does not branch until near its termination. Dendrons may be

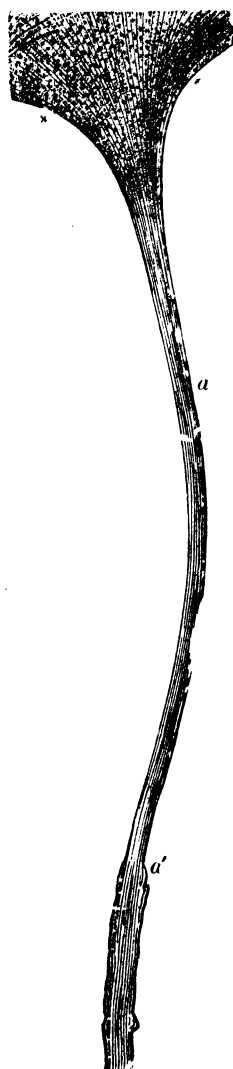


FIG. 198.—AXIS-CYLINDER PROCESS OF A NERVE-CELL FROM THE SPINAL CORD. (M. Schultze.)

x x, portion of the cell-body, out of which the fibrils of the axis-cylinder process, *a*, are seen to emerge. At *a'* this process acquires a myelin sheath. Highly magnified.

¹ From the Greek word *νεῦρον*, a nerve, and not to be confounded with *neurōne* (often erroneously termed 'neurōn') which was invented by Waldeyer to express the whole nerve-cell with all its processes (p. 178) and is widely used in that sense.

altogether absent; the cell is then *adendritic*. Some nerve-cells have only one process (*unipolar cells*), but most have two or more (*bipolar, multipolar*). The dendrons near the cell-body contain Nissl granules, but the axon does not.

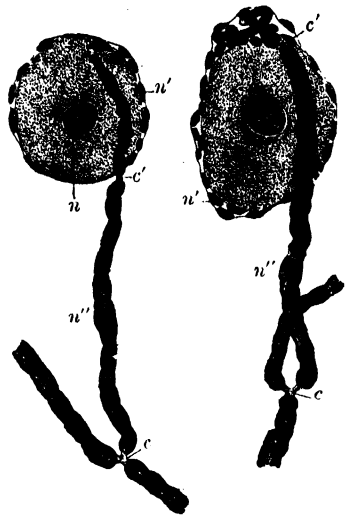


FIG. 199.—TWO SPINAL GANGLION-CELLS, SHOWING BIFURCATION OF THEIR NERVE-FIBRE PROCESSES. (Ranvier.) Osmic preparation.

n, nucleus of one of the cells; *n'*, nuclei of capsules; *n''*, nuclei of neurolemma; *c, c'*, constrictions of Ranvier.

The shape of the cell-body depends largely on the number of processes and the manner in which they come off. If there is but one chief process the cell-body is generally nearly spherical. This is the case with most of the cells of the spinal ganglia; in these the single process, after a short course, divides into two fibres which pass, the one centrally, the other peripherally (fig. 199). When there are two main processes from a nerve-cell they often go off in opposite directions from the cell-body, which is thus rendered somewhat spindle-shaped (fig. 201); but occasionally they emerge at the same part. When there are three or more processes, the cell-body becomes irregularly angular (figs. 194, 195).

In some cases where there appear to be two fibres connected with a cell, one is derived from another nerve-cell elsewhere, and is passing to end in a

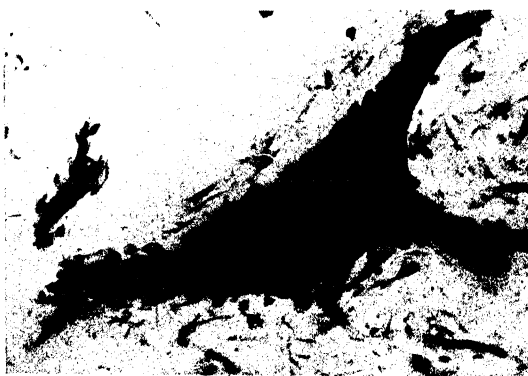


FIG. 200.—'BOUTONS TERMINAUX' OF SPINAL CORD CELL, IN FIRST STAGE OF DEGENERATION, CONSEQUENT TO CUTTING DORSAL (AFFERENT) ROOTS. NOTE THE SWOLLEN 'BOUTONS.' Preparation and photograph by E. C. Hoff. $\times 1070$.

ramification which envelopes the cell-body. In certain situations the ramification is coarse and forms a calyx-like investment to the cell-body; in other

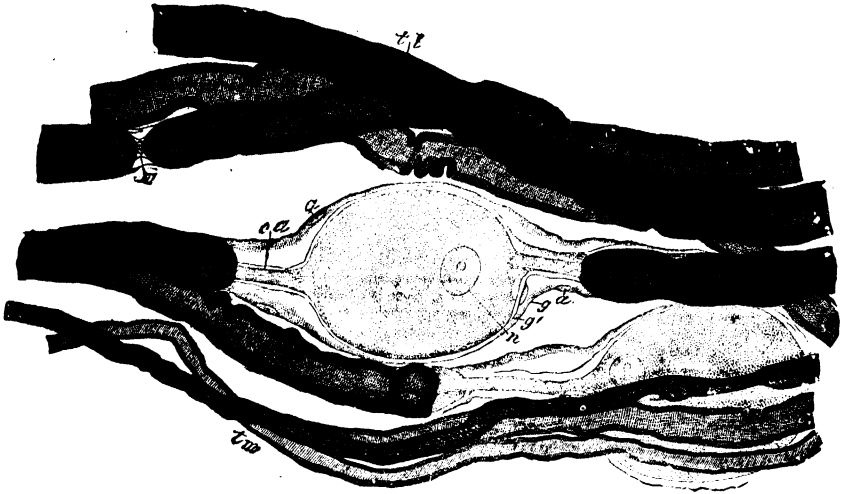


FIG. 201.—SPINAL GANGLION-CELLS AND FIBRES OF RAY. Osmic acid preparation. (Ranvier.)

t, large myelinate fibres; *t m*, medium-sized myelinate fibres; *E*, constriction of Ranvier; *g*, sheath of ganglion-cell; *a*, *n*, nuclei of sheath; *g'*, surface of cell; *n*, its nucleus; *ca*, axis-cylinder process entering the cell; a similar process is seen emerging at the opposite pole. The myelin sheath of the nerve-fibres is stained black by the osmic acid.

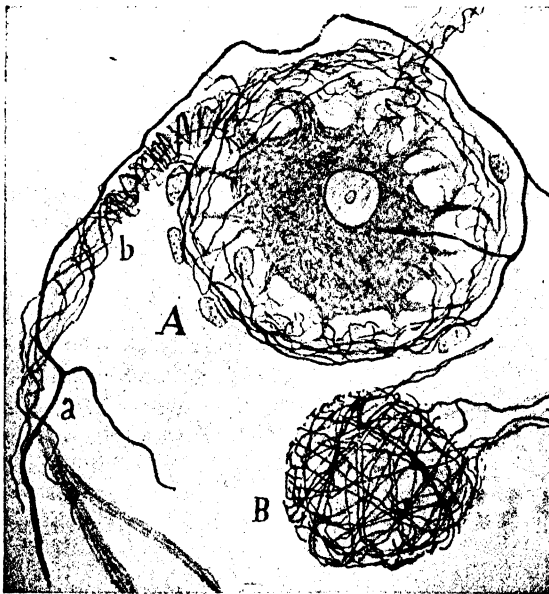


FIG. 202.—TWO CELLS FROM A SYMPATHETIC GANGLION OF MAN SHOWING THE TERMINATION OF AFFERENT FIBRES WITHIN THE CELL-CAPSULE. (R. y Cajal.)

A, large cell; B, smaller cell. a, b, afferent fibres surrounding a dendron and passing into the capsule.

places the pericellular fibrils are very delicate and form a fine arborisation over

the cell-body (fig. 202). Where the fibrils come in contact with the surface of the cell they may end in small button-like enlargements or varicosities (fig. 200).

It has been shown (E. C. Hoff) that these 'boutons' in the dorso-mesial portion of the spinal cord show degeneration after section of the dorsal (afferent) roots. This is characterised by their swelling, already noticeable after twenty-four hours (see fig. 200). It is succeeded, in four to six days, by the complete disappearance of these enlargements.

In preparations made by the Golgi silver method the nerve-cells with all their processes are coloured black by a deposit of reduced silver, so that, in thick sections, the processes can be traced for a considerable distance from the body of the cell, in many instances as far as their remotest ramifications. It has been found by the employment of this method that the axis-cylinder process is not always an unbranched process, as was formerly supposed, but that it usually gives off fine lateral branches or *collaterals*, which themselves tend to ramify in the adjacent nerve-substance (fig. 203). And although the main part of the process usually passes on and becomes the axis-cylinder of a long myelinate nerve-fibre (*long-axoned cell*, fig. 203), this is not always the case, for in another type of nerve-cell within the nerve-centres (*short-axoned cell*, fig. 204), the axis-cylinder process breaks up almost immediately into an arborescence. The long process of the first type (which becomes the axis-cylinder of a long nerve-fibre), although it may remain unbranched

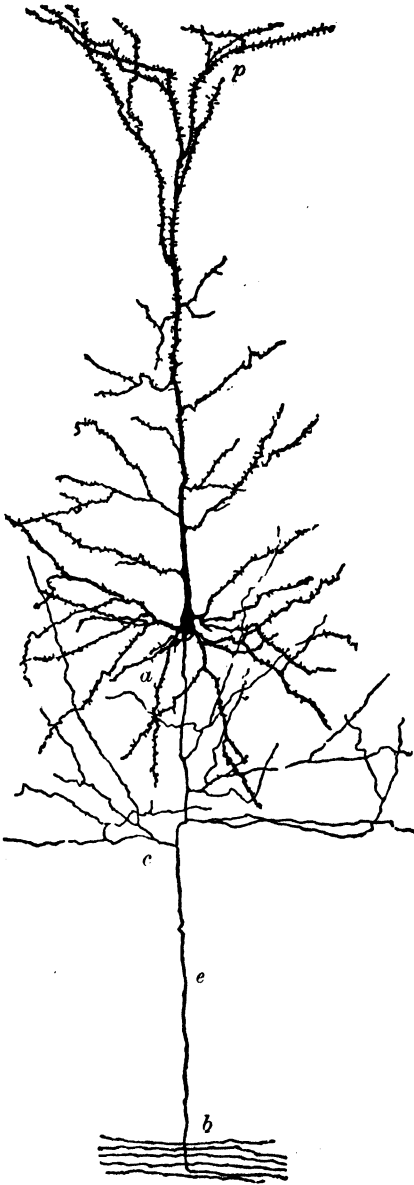


FIG. 203.—A PYRAMIDAL CELL OF THE CORTEX CEREBRI OF THE RABBIT. CELL OF TYPE I. OF GOLGI (WITH LONG AXON). (R. y Cajal.)

a, basal dendrons; p, apical dendron ramifying near surface; e, axon or nerve-fibre process; c, its collaterals; b, fibres of white matter of brain.

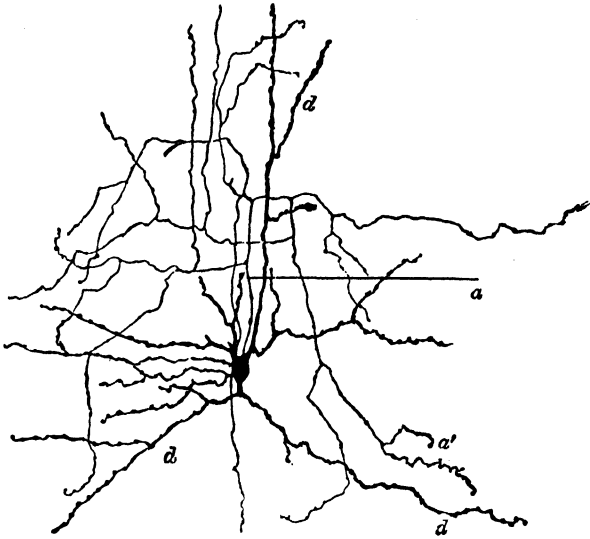


FIG. 204.—CELL OF TYPE II. OF GOLGI, WITH SHORT AXON RAMIFYING IN THE ADJACENT GREY MATTER. GOLGI METHOD. (R. y Cajal.)
a, axon; d, d, dendrons.

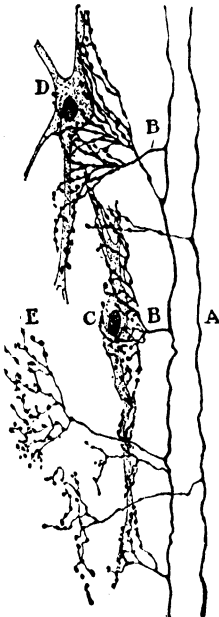


FIG. 205.—SYNAPTIC ARBORISATION OF COLLATERALS FROM THE DORSAL ROOT-FIBRES AROUND CELLS IN THE DORSAL HORN OF GREY MATTER. (R. y Cajal.)

A, fibres of dorsal column derived from dorsal root; B, collaterals; C, D, nerve-cells in grey matter surrounded by arborisations of the collaterals; E, an arborisation shown separately.



FIG. 206.—DIAGRAM OF SYNAPSE BETWEEN OLFACTORY CELLS AND CELLS OF OLFACTORY BULB. (G. Retzius.)

n, n, axons of the nerve-cells; gl, an olfactory glomerulus with a synapse between the axon of an olfactory cell and a dendron of a cell in the olfactory bulb.

throughout its course, ultimately ends in almost every instance in a terminal ramification or arborescence; and this whether the ending is at the periphery or within the central nervous system itself.

Synapses.—Each nerve-cell, including all its processes, is regarded as an anatomically independent element or *nerve-unit*, the *neurone* of Waldeyer, and the connexion of one nerve-cell with another is believed to be effected through the medium of the terminal arborisation of their cell-processes. Such arborisations may interlace with one another, as in the olfactory glomeruli (fig. 206), in the retina, and in sympathetic ganglia; or a terminal arborisation from one cell may embrace the body or the cell-processes of another cell; as with the cells of the spinal cord (fig. 205), the cells of the central acoustic nucleus in the pons and in many other places. The term *synapse* is applied to these modes of junction (M. Foster). By them nerve-cells are linked together into long chains (*neurone chains*); the anatomical path, as above indicated, is interrupted at the synapses, although physiological changes (nerve-impulses) are propagated—stepping over, as it were, from one cell to the other at each synapse. Probably what really happens is a generation of new nerve-impulses in the successive cells forming the chain.

The doctrine of the anatomical independence of the nerve-cell is known as the ‘neurone-theory.’ It is supported by the appearances of the Golgi silver method and many others. In these the reduction of the silver is strictly confined to single cells, which become stained *with all their processes*; and these processes, when demonstrated by this method, are never found in continuity either with the processes or with the bodies of other nerve-cells. Moreover, many of the facts relating to nerve degeneration can be better interpreted by this theory than by one which assumes the existence of direct continuity between the nerve-units, which Apáthy and others thought to occur.

There undoubtedly exists a physiological independence so far as the maintenance of nutrition of the cell and its processes is concerned; and there is also evidence that, in the transmission of nerve impulses from one neurone to another, a block always occurs at the synapses, causing a slight arrest or delay in the transmission. It is also noteworthy that nerve-impulses, so far as is known, pass a synapse in one direction only, never in the reverse direction. Whence the expression ‘law of forward direction’ employed by Sherrington to express this fact. In motor or efferent nerve-cells this direction is always towards the cell-body by the dendrons and away from it by the axon, but in sensory or afferent fibres the conduction is both towards and away from the cell-body and is effected by the axons.

CELLS OF NERVE-GANGLIA.

In ganglia (figs. 207, 208, 213) each cell-body has a nucleated sheath continuous with the neurolemma of the nerve-fibre which belongs to the cell.

In the **spinal ganglia** of mammals and of most other vertebrates, and in many of the corresponding ganglia on the roots of the cranial nerves, the cells have only one issuing process, the axon. This soon acquires a myelin sheath and then passes with a convoluted course to a little distance from the cell-body, where, still within the ganglion, it divides into two; one fibre passing to the nerve-centre and the other towards the periphery. The branching is T-shaped or Y-shaped, and always occurs at a node of Ranvier (fig. 209). The spinal ganglion-cells have, as a rule, no dendrons, but some

show, besides the axons, short processes terminating in bulbous enlargements (fig. 210) either within the cell-capsule or immediately outside it (Huber, Cajal).

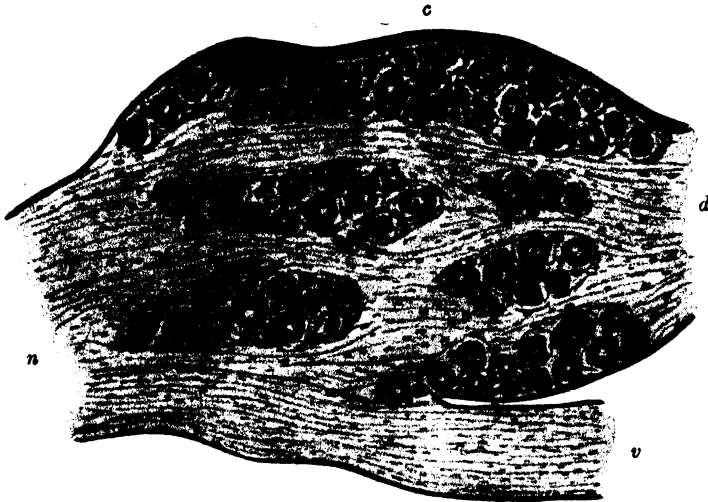


FIG. 207.—SECTION OF SPINAL GANGLION. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 27$. From a preparation by Sir Charles Sherrington.
c, capsule; d, dorsal root; v, ventral root; n, mixed spinal nerve.

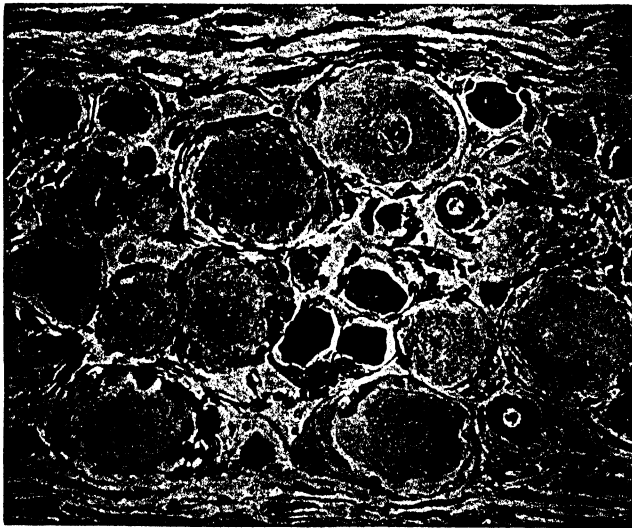


FIG. 208.—FROM A SECTION OF DOG'S SPINAL GANGLION, SHOWING DIFFERENT TYPES OF CELLS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 240$.

The clear area, free of Nissl granules, seen in some of the cell-bodies is the place of origin of the axon. Some of the cell-bodies have shrunk away from the nucleated capsule. Notice the smaller and more darkly staining cells, contrasting with the larger and clearer cells.

Short intracapsular processes frequently occur in sympathetic ganglia (fig. 214) and in senile spinal ganglion-cells.

The origin of the axon is not always simple, but may be multiple, the several parts forming at first a plexus close to the cell, eventually joining to

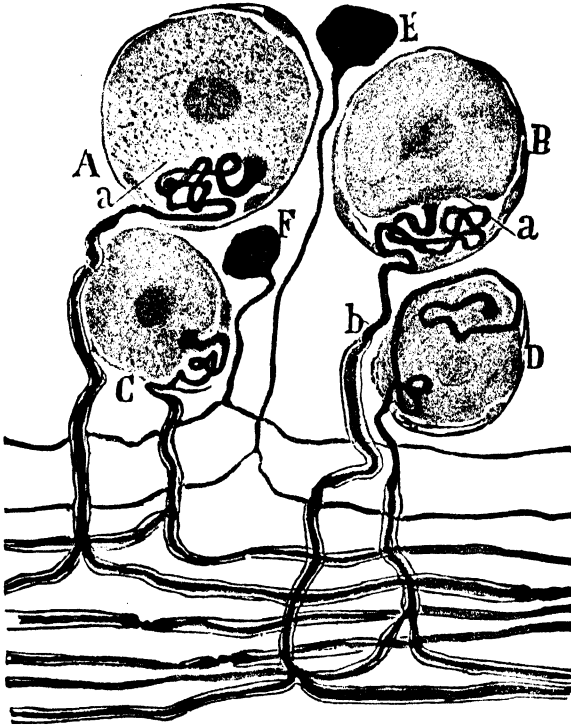


FIG. 209.—TYPES OF CEREBRO-SPINAL GANGLION-CELLS, FROM VAGUS GANGLION OF CAT. (R. y Cajal.)

A, B, large cells with much convoluted commencement of axon; C, D, smaller cells; E, F, smallest cells staining darkly and without axonal convolution; a, a, cell-bodies; b, issuing nerve-fibre.

produce a single axon. According to Cajal this multiple condition tends to become accentuated with age (fig. 211).

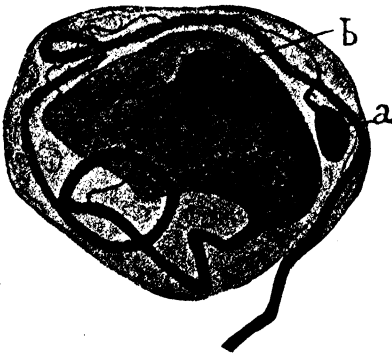


FIG. 210.—CEREBRO-SPINAL GANGLION-CELL. (R. y Cajal.)

a, b, intracapsular processes, with knobbed extremities.

Two chief varieties of cell occur in the spinal ganglia, one large and clear, the other small and staining almost uniformly dark (fig. 209). According to Ranson, the small cells give origin to myelinate nerve-fibres. The cell-body of the spinal ganglion-cell is sometimes invested by ramifications of a fine nerve-fibre (fig. 212), derived either from one of the other cells of the same ganglion or from a cell in a neighbouring sympathetic ganglion. Similar fibres, forming pericellular plexuses, also occur in sympathetic ganglia.

Sections of **sympathetic ganglia** (fig. 213) do not show the regular arrange-

ment of large bundles of myelinate fibres traversing the ganglion which forms a conspicuous feature in spinal ganglia. The cell-bodies are smaller; they usually have several dendrons and one axon; this generally becomes

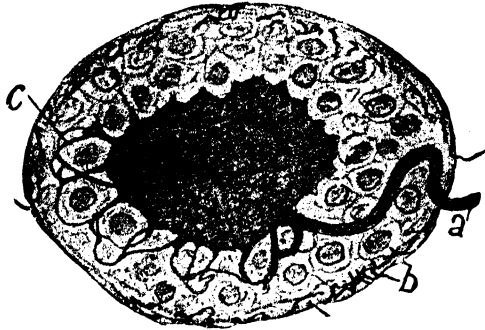


FIG. 211.—SENILE TYPE OF CEREBRO-SPINAL GANGLION-CELL. (R. y Cajal.)
a, issuing axon; b, part of pericellular plexus; c, multiple origin of axon.

an amyelinate nerve-fibre, but is occasionally a fine myelinate fibre. In certain animals (rabbit, hare, guinea-pig) each sympathetic cell has two nuclei. In the frog the sympathetic cells are unipolar, but sometimes show

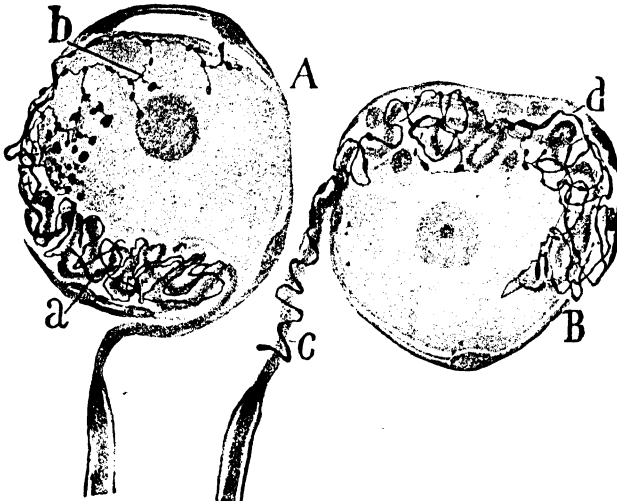


FIG. 212.—PERICELLULAR ARBORISATIONS IN SPINAL GANGLION-CELLS. (R. y Cajal.)
In A the arborisation extends over the cell-body; in B it is limited to the axon.
a, b, c, d, afferent fibres.

a second spiral fibre winding round the issuing axon. Such spiral fibres occur also in man; here, as already stated, they appear to be afferent fibres which are forming synapses around the axons and cell-bodies of the ganglion-cells (fig. 212).

The cell-bodies in both spinal and sympathetic ganglia are disposed in aggregations of different size, separated by bundles of nerve-fibres.



FIG. 213.—SYMPATHETIC GANGLION OF GUINEA FIG. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 188$.
The blood-vessels appear as if injected owing to the red blood-corpuscles being stained by the iron haematoxylin. The capsule is on the right.

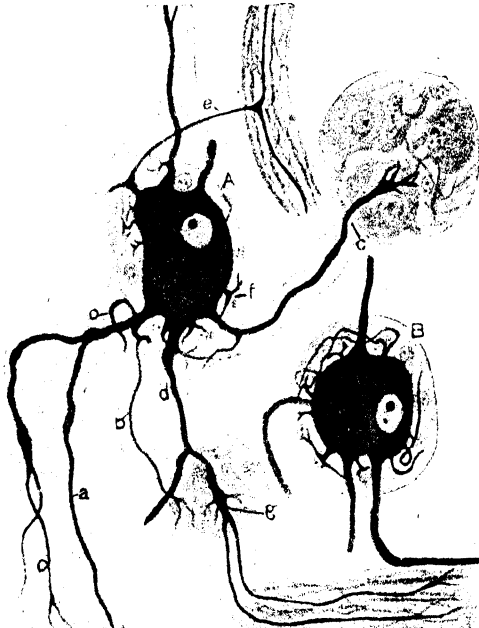


FIG. 214.—CELLS FROM THE SUPERIOR CERVICAL GANGLION: MAN. (De Castro.)
A, a cell with numerous long dendrons, some of which are passing to cells in other parts of the ganglion. From one of the long dendrons the axon (a) arises. Besides the long dendrons (b, c, d, e, g) there are several short ones (f), mostly ending close to the cell.
B another cell with three long dendrons and an axon, and numerous short dendrons, ending close to the cell.

The ganglion, if large, is enclosed by an investing capsule of connective tissue which is continuous with the epineurium and perineurium of the entering and issuing nerve-trunks.

DEGENERATION AND REGENERATION OF NERVE-FIBRES AND NERVE-CELLS.

Wallerian degeneration.—Since each axon is the process of a nerve-cell, when a nerve is cut or crushed so as to sever the continuity of its fibres, the distal separated part degenerates (fig. 215). Its axis-cylinder becomes broken up and disappears, the nuclei of the neurolemma multiply, and the

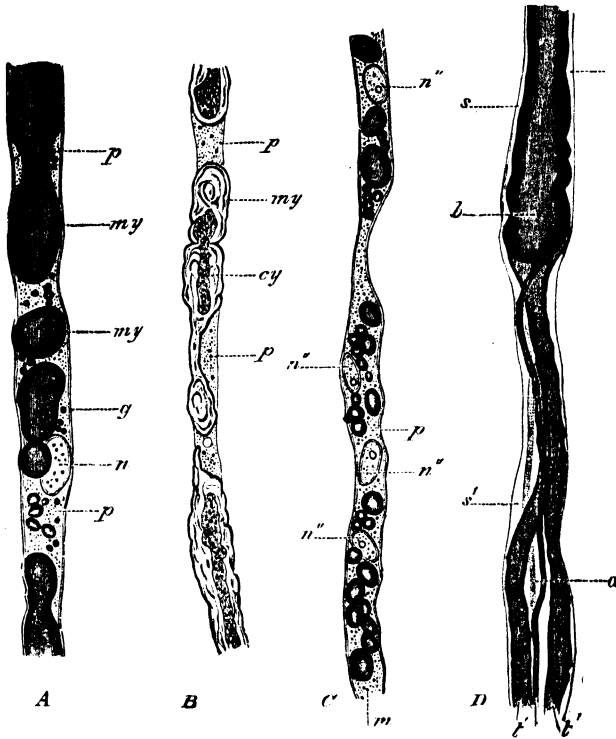


FIG. 215.—DEGENERATION AND REGENERATION OF NERVE-FIBRES IN THE RABBIT.
(Ranvier.)

- A*, part of a nerve-fibre in which degeneration has commenced in consequence of the section, fifty hours previously, of the trunk of the nerve higher up; *my*, myelin of sheath becoming broken up into drops; *p*, granular protoplasmic substance which is replacing the myelin; *n*, nucleus; *g*, neurolemma. *B*, another fibre in which degeneration is proceeding, the nerve having been cut four days previously; *p*, as before; *cy*, axis-cylinder partly broken up, and the pieces enclosed in portions of myelin, *my*. *C*, more advanced stage of degeneration, the myelin sheath having almost disappeared, and being replaced by protoplasm, *p*, in which, besides drops of fatty substance, *m*, are numerous nuclei, *n*, which have resulted from the division of the single nucleus of the internode. *D*, commencing regeneration of a nerve-fibre. Several small fibres, *t*, *t'*, have sprouted from the somewhat bulbous cut end, *b*, of the original fibre, *t*; *a*, an axis-cylinder which has not yet acquired its myelin sheath; *s*, *s'*, neurolemma of the original fibre. *A*, *C*, and *D* are from osmic preparations; *B*, from an alcohol and carmine preparation.

myelin sheath undergoes a process of disintegration into droplets of fatty substance which stain intensely black when treated by the method of Marchi (see Appendix), a procedure which does not blacken the myelin sheath of normal fibres. In the course of time the degenerated myelin disappears, this being due to its removal and digestion by phagocytes.

The network of neuro-fibrils in the nerve-endings—both motor and sensory—begins to show changes within a few hours; the fibrils swell and become blended with one another, and the mass thus formed then breaks up into portions and disappears.

The alteration in the myelin sheath of the fibres was described by the elder Waller in 1850, and is known as *Wallerian degeneration*. In man and mammals a change is apparent twenty-four to twenty-eight hours after section of the nerve, and proceeds rapidly; by the third day the nerve-fibres cease to conduct impulses.

When a peripheral nerve is cut, all the nerve-fibres distal to the point of section must undergo degeneration, because all have grown from and are processes of nerve-cells—the afferent fibres arising from the cells of the spinal ganglion on the dorsal root, the efferent fibres from the cells of the ventral horn of the spinal cord or from similar cells in the brain. This is merely an example of the general law—common to all cells—that any portion of a cell, cut off from the nucleus, after a time ceases to function and undergoes degeneration. Dendrites, however, are less sensitive to separation from the nerve-cell than axons.

Waller supposed that no changes are produced centrally to the injury when a nerve is cut, nor indeed is there any obvious immediate alteration in the nerve-fibre itself between the place of injury and the cell-body. But it was found by Nissl that degenerative changes occur in the cell-body of every cell (whether motor or sensory) the axis cylinder of which has been severed.¹ These changes become apparent a few days after section of the nerve-fibre and consist in a disintegration of the Nissl granules, associated at first with a general swelling of the cytoplasm and nucleus, which last passes to the periphery of the cell-body. After a time the disintegrated chromatic substance disappears and the cell-body and nucleus become shrunken in volume. This process of disintegration and disappearance of chromatin is termed *Nissl degeneration* or *chromatolysis*. It is brought about not only by section of the axon (fig. 194, C), but also by the action of a large number of drugs and poisons. It has also been described as occurring after excessive fatigue—though this is very doubtful.

The chromatolysis may be persistent or may be recovered from. Sometimes it is followed by almost complete atrophy of the cell-body; when this is marked there may ultimately ensue a secondary Wallerian degeneration of the part of the nerve-fibre still attached to the cell. Generally the closer the injury to the nerve-cell, the greater the changes produced in the cell.

Very little is known about the microscopic changes which ensue on section of myelinate nerve-fibres, although it may be conjectured that they will show changes similar to those which have been described in the axis-cylinders of the myelinate fibres. That they resist degeneration longer than myelinate fibres seems clear from the fact that they will continue to conduct nerve-impulses, when artificially stimulated, for a considerably longer time after section than will the myelinate

¹ Section, however, of the dorsal root-fibres central to the ganglia does not entail degeneration of the ganglion-cells from which they arise. Nor does section of a spinal nerve always entail degeneration of the ventral horn cells from which its motor fibres are derived (Van Gehuchten). Why these exceptions occur is not understood.

fibres. In mammals the latter generally lose their power of conducting such impulses after two or three days.

Regeneration.—After a certain lapse of time, especially if the cut ends of the nerve are brought into apposition, functional continuity between them may become re-established, at least in part. When such re-establishment of function take place in a cut nerve, it is effected not by re-establishment of

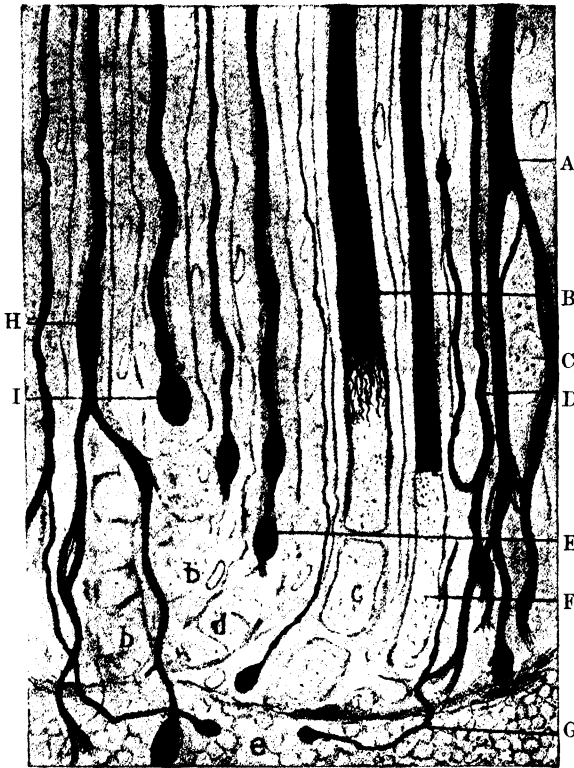


FIG. 216.—COMMENCING OUTGROWTHS FROM AXIS-CYLINDERS IN CENTRAL STUMP OF CUT NERVE. (R. y Cajal.)

A, an axon bifurcating; B, an axon which has not grown out peripherally; C, nuclei of neurolemma, proliferated; D, an axis-cylinder which has bifurcated: one fork has begun to grow upwards in the stump; E, bulbous enlargement of growing end of axis-cylinder; F, empty sheath; G, fine axon with bulbous growing end; H, enlargement in the course of a budding axis-cylinder; I, bulbous end of thick axis-cylinder; b, c, d, myelin drops, escaped from the cut fibres; e, blood-clot.

anatomical connexion between the cut-off degenerated fibres and the non-degenerated fibres of the central stump, but by an outgrowth of new fibres from that stump (figs. 215, D; 216; 217). If the nerve has been cut right across several buds grow out from the end of each axon in the stump. If the severance has been merely by crushing, so that the neurolemma remains intact—as by tying and releasing a ligature—the proximal end of the axon may simply grow down into the distal part of the sheath as a single fibre as shown by Langley. When the nerve is only crushed, and not cut right

across, the neurolemma is not severed, and complete restoration of function may take place within a few weeks, the axons growing down the relatively

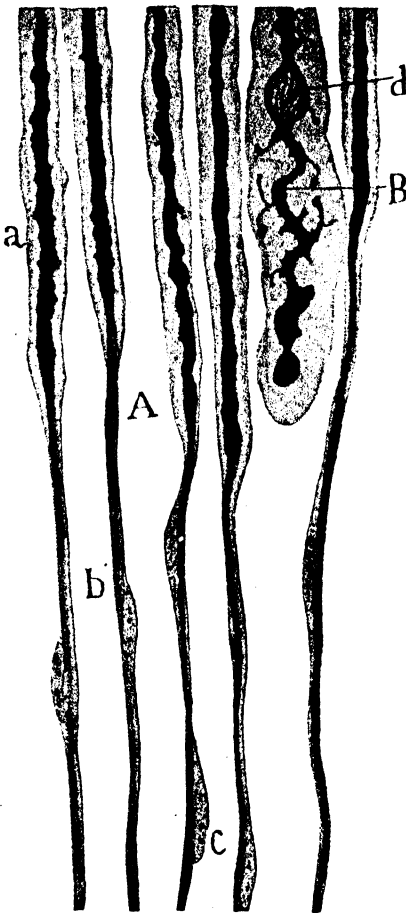


FIG. 217.—FIBRES FROM THE CENTRAL CUT END OF SCIATIC NERVE (OF YOUNG RABBIT) SEVERED TEN DAYS BEFORE DEATH. (R. y Cajal.)

A, down-growth of axons (a, b, c) above the point of section. At this level most of the fibres have been crushed, rather than cut across. B, a fibre which has been completely severed at this point shows peculiar degenerative appearances, e.g., buds from the axis-cylinder, and at d a separation of the neurofibrils.

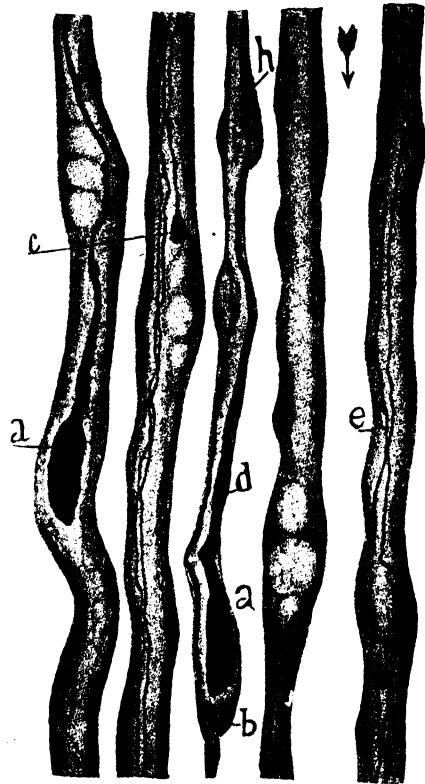


FIG. 218.—FIBRES FROM THE DISTAL END OF A NERVE CUT SEVENTY-EIGHT DAYS BEFORE DEATH. (R. y Cajal.)

Shows axis-cylinder sprouts which have grown down from the central cut end of a nerve into the old sheaths of the nerve-fibres; myelin drops are still visible within the old sheaths. Two of the new fibres (d) are interstitial (not in old sheaths), they are growing in a newly formed nucleated protoplasmic strand, h, b. Some of the down-growing fibres (a, a) show enlarged ends; c, a fine fibre with bulbous enlargement; e, two fine fibres growing down within an old sheath; to the left of this, an old sheath without new fibres.

intact neurolemmal sheaths. But when the nerve is completely cut across, scar tissue forms between the cut ends; and the newly sprouting fibres have to find their way through this scar tissue, in order to pass towards the

periphery along the course of the degenerated fibres, the sheaths of the latter serving as guides for the down-growing axons. The neurolemmal cells, as shown by Del Rio Hortega, are neuroglial in origin, being a modified form of oligodendroglia (see p. 190). But restoration may not occur for many months, according to the width of the gap between the cut ends and the nature of the cicatricial tissue formed between them. Not infrequently the restoration of function, especially of afferent nerves, is permanently defective.

Some investigators have attempted to show that regeneration may take place independently in the peripheral part of the cut nerve. But no regeneration of axons occurs in the peripheral cut end, although certain changes take place there, *e.g.*, multiplication of nuclei and their regular arrangement in long protoplasmic strands (occupying old sheaths) into which the new fibres may find their way (fig. 218). But there is never actual union of the down-growing fibres of the central stump with others formed independently in the peripheral severed trunk, and of course no union with the old axis-cylinders, which have wholly disappeared.

The protoplasmic strands just mentioned were first described by Bünchner, and are known by his name. Boeke has shown that even when the regenerating fibres grow not into but between the strands of Bünchner they become enclosed within the protoplasm of cells and maintain an intracellular position even to their remotest end. The cells which thus conduct and probably minister to the nutrition of the growing nerve-fibres are termed by Boeke 'conducting cells.' Such cells are even found enclosing the growing axis-cylinders in the scar-tissue which separates the ends of a cut nerve.

The advancing axis-cylinders are usually terminated by a bulbous swelling similar to that which characterises the growing fibres of the embryonic nerves (figs. 216, 218); they may also exhibit lateral ramifications. Even when the cut central stump is turned backwards and fixed amongst the muscles or under the skin, a certain number of newly budded fibres may find their way from it into the degenerated peripheral part of the nerve, being probably directed to it by chemiotaxis.

When the union is effected between the cut ends of an ordinary mixed nerve, sensory fibres may ultimately reach some of the sensory structures in which the original fibres terminated and motor fibres may arrive at the end-plates on the muscle-fibres. These end-plates have for the most part remained as small collections of sarcoplasm with numerous muscle-nuclei, but have lost the terminal ramifications of the axis-cylinder. When the axis-cylinders grow down to the end-plates their terminal ramifications grow into the latter.

Restoration of the functions of sensory fibres appears to present much greater difficulty than that of motor fibres, except in the case of those sensory fibres which subserve pain, these requiring no special nerve-endings such as tactile corpuscles, Pacinian corpuscles, end-bulbs, etc.

It is nevertheless possible, as Langley and Anderson showed, to cause the cut central end of the cervical vagus to grow into the cut peripheral end of the cervical sympathetic: in this case the regenerating fibres of the vagus pass into and end within the superior cervical ganglion. Cannon has effected a similar junction between the phrenic and the cervical sympathetic.

If from any cause regeneration fail to establish itself, the central end of the cut fibre and the cell-body from which it takes origin undergo slow atrophic changes resulting from disuse. These atrophic changes may ultimately extend to other links in the cell-chain, especially in young animals;

so that even remote cells in the same physiological path may eventually become atrophied (*v. Gudden's atrophy, secondary atrophy*).

No effective regeneration of cut nerve-fibres is ever seen in the brain or

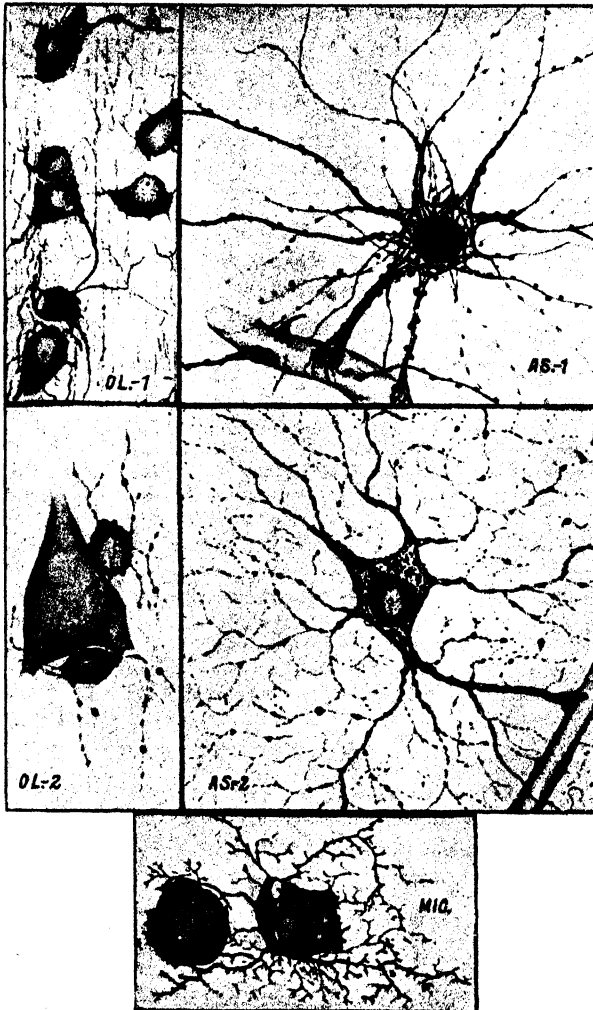


FIG. 219.—NEUROGLIA-CELLS. (Penfield and Cone.) Highly magnified.

OL-1, oligodendroglia cells from white matter (interfascicular cells); AS-1, fibrous astrocyte from white matter; OL-2, oligodendroglia cells from grey matter (satellite cells); AS-2, protoplasmic astrocyte from grey matter; MIC, microglia cells. Note the attachment of the astrocytes to blood-vessels.

spinal cord. The process of degeneration of all the fibres which are cut off from their cell-bodies occurs in the same manner as at the periphery; Nissl degeneration also takes place in the cell-bodies. But in the nerve-centres the place of the degenerated nerve-fibres becomes eventually occupied by strands of fine fibres, formed mainly of neuroglia. These strands can be

differentiated from the surrounding normal myelinate nervous tissue by various methods.

NEUROGLIA.

Besides nerve-cells and nerve-fibres there occurs in the brain and spinal cord a peculiar tissue which has been termed *neuroglia*.¹ It is composed of cells and fibres, the latter being prolonged from and through the cells.

Of the neuroglia elements some are radially disposed. These start from the lining layer of the central canal of the spinal cord and the ventricles of



FIG. 220.—NEUROGLIA - CELLS FROM CORTEX CEREBRI (CAT). (R. y Cajal.)

A, B, C, oligodendroglia cells attached to large pyramids; D, a protoplasmic astrocyte, attached on the one hand to the base of a pyramid, on the other (c) to a blood-vessel v; a, d, small adendritic satellite cells.

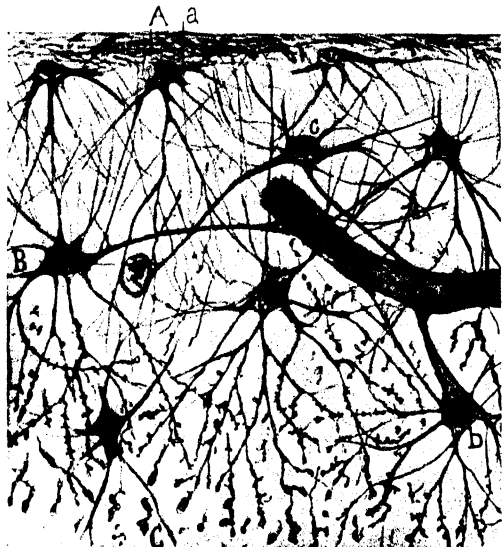


FIG. 221.—NEUROGLIA-CELLS FROM THE SUPERFICIAL LAYER OF THE CEREBRUM (DOG). (R. y Cajal.)

A, fibrous cap with astrocytes (a) partly embedded in it; B, b, c, protoplasmic astrocytes, with intracellular fibrils and 'feet' attached to blood-vessels; C, enlarged endings of their other branches.

the brain, being derived from the ciliated epithelium-cells lining those cavities. They course in a radial direction, slightly diverging and constantly branching as they proceed towards the surface of the organ, where they end in enlargements attached to the pia mater. Radial neuroglia-cells and fibres are seen in the embryo before the nervous elements are fully developed (fig. 222); the neuroglia-cells when first distinct form a kind of spongework.

Special methods are necessary to study the branching cytoplasm and fibres of neuroglia-cells. With stains such as hæmatoxylin and eosin, only the nuclei and a little of the adjacent cytoplasm can be seen.

¹ From *νεῦρον*, nerve, and *γλοία*, glue.

According to the observations of Cajal, Del Rio Hortega, Penfield and others, there are four types of neuroglia-cells (figs. 219, 220, 221) :

1. **Protoplasmic cells** (protoplasmic astrocytes of Cajal).—Almost exclusively found in grey matter. The nucleus is rounded ; radiating processes spring from the cytoplasm ; hence the names astrocyte and spider-cell, by which these neuroglia-cells are also known. Often the processes end in expansions or vascular feet which are closely applied to the capillary blood-vessels and also to the pia mater. There are no fibres in the cytoplasm.

2. **Fibrous cells** (fibrous astrocytes of Cajal).—Almost exclusively found in white matter. The radiating processes are much longer than those of the protoplasmic cells ; they also comprise thick fibres, often attached to blood-vessels. Their purpose is to support and bind together the nervous elements.

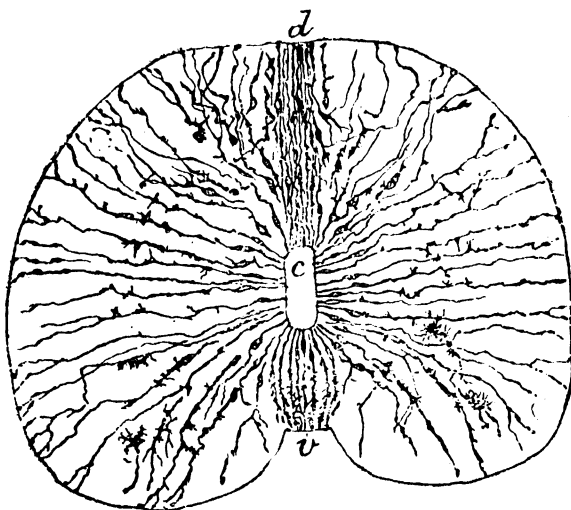


FIG. 222.—SECTION OF SPINAL CORD OF EMBRYO CHICK, SHOWING NEUROGLIA-FIBRES PROLONGED FROM THE EPITHELIUM OF THE CENTRAL CANAL. (R. y Cajal.)

d, dorsal ; v, ventral surface ; c, central canal from which the neuroglia-cells and fibres are seen to radiate to the periphery of the cord. Some detached neuroglia-cells are also represented.

3. **Oligodendroglia cells**.—More frequent in white than grey matter. Oligodendroglia cells are smaller than 1 and 2 ; they do not contain fibres ; they have no vascular feet. There is reason to believe that these cells participate in the formation and the maintenance of the myelin. They also exist in peripheral nerves where they form the neurolemmal cells.

4. **Microglia cells**.—More numerous in the grey than in the white matter. The cell-bodies and processes are very irregular, branch freely, and end in terminal spines. As the name implies, they are smaller than the other types of neuroglia-cells. Under pathological conditions they may become amoeboid and phagocytic. Their branching processes then become withdrawn and they look not unlike lymphocytes or histiocytes when stained by ordinary methods. These cells are mesodermic in origin, in contrast with 1, 2 and 3,

which are ectodermic. Microglia are found beneath the pia mater, in certain localised areas. They first appear shortly before birth, increase in numbers up to the fourth day after birth, and then migrate throughout the brain and spinal cord (Del Rio Hortega).

HISTOGENESIS OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM.

Development of nerve-cells.—All nerve-cells are developed from the cells of the neural groove and neural (ganglionic) crest which separates off when the groove closes to form the neural canal. The cells of the neural canal form the spinal cord and brain, and the neural crest gives off at intervals sprouts which become the rudiments of the spinal ganglia.

The cells which line the neural canal are at first all long columnar cells, but amongst these, and probably produced by cell-division from some of them (fig. 223, *A*), spherical and spindle-shaped cells, which give origin to nerve-cells, make their appearance, and rudimentary nerve-fibres presently grow out from them. These cells are termed *neuroblasts*. The remaining cells of the neural canal are known as *spongioblasts*; they give origin to some of the neuroglia-cells.

Development of the efferent nerves.

—The nerve-fibres which eventually form the ventral (anterior) roots of the nerves, as well as others which remain within the central nervous system, are developed from the neuroblasts. From each a single process first grows out. This is the axon; it is characterised by an enlarged extremity (figs. 223, 224, 225). Some of the growing axons emerge from the ventro-lateral region of the canal and become the axis-cylinders of the motor or efferent nerves. The dendrons appear later than the axons. The axon processes of these neuroblasts which do not pass out with the nerve-roots, but, continuing within the nerve-centre, become developed into intercentral fibres.

Harrison directly observed the outgrowth of the axon processes of the neuroblasts of the amphibian larva in isolated neuroblasts examined in serum under the microscope. The growth of nerve fibres can also be seen at the ends of the developing nerve-fibres in the tail of the tadpole. In this case, as normally in all others within the body, the growing fibres are not free but are enclosed in elongated, nucleated cells—the *lemmal* or *sheath cells*. Harrison has shown that the sheath cells have nothing to do with the formation of the axon. Nor are they mesodermic; they are derived from the neural crest. If this is removed the efferent nerves grow

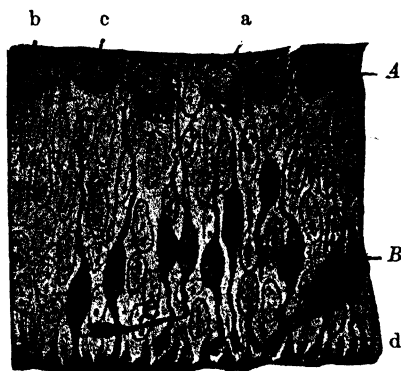


FIG. 223.—SECTION OF PART OF NEURAL CANAL OF CHICK OF TWO AND A HALF DAYS. (R. y Cajal.)

A, germinal layer containing spherical neuroblasts, *a*, *b*, *c* (a neuro-fibril has already begun to grow out from *a*); *B*, neuroblasts in a bipolar stage; *d*, enlarged end of growing axon; *e*, another axon growing tangentially.

out as usual from neuroblasts within the cord, but are not surrounded by lemmal cells and develop no neurolemma. The sensory roots and ganglia, which take origin from the cells of the crest—are of course not formed at all under these conditions. The sheath cells thus represent neuroglia in peripheral nerves.

Development of the afferent nerves.—The afferent nerve-fibres, which are characteristic of the dorsal roots, are developed as sprouts from the cells of the neural crest, which are therefore also neuroblasts. Each cell becomes elongated and from either end an axon grows out, so that the cells become bipolar (figs. 225, 326). One set of processes, forming the *dorsal (posterior) root*, grows into the dorsal portion of the neural canal: these fibres ramify

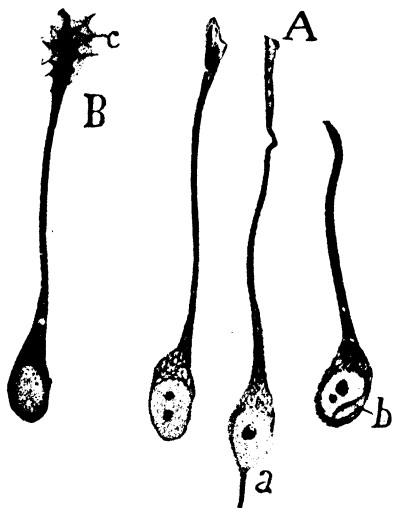


FIG. 224.—NEUROBLASTS FROM THE SPINAL CORD OF A THIRD-DAY CHICK EMBRYO. (R. y Cajal.)

A, three neuroblasts, stained by Cajal's reduced silver method, showing a network of neurofibrils in the cell-body; a, a bipolar cell. B, a neuroblast stained by the method of Golgi, showing the incremental cone, c.

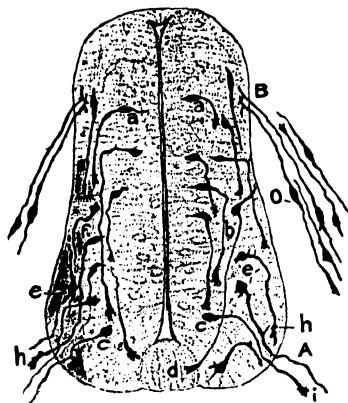


FIG. 225.—SECTION OF SPINAL CORD OF CHICK OF THIRD DAY OF INCUBATION. (R. y Cajal.)

A, ventral root-fibres formed by outgrowths of motor neuroblasts, c, e; B, dorsal root-fibres formed by ingrowths of bipolar sensory neuroblasts, O, in ganglion rudiment; a, early neuroblasts; b, neuroblast giving rise to a commissural nerve-fibre, d; h, i, enlarged ends of growing axons; e, e, neuroblasts of which the dendrons are beginning to appear.

in the developing grey matter; the other set, containing the afferent fibres of the spinal nerves, remains outside the canal and grows towards the developing ventral root, the fibres eventually mingling to form the mixed nerve. As development proceeds, the bipolar ganglion-cells become transformed in most vertebrates by a shifting of the two axons into unipolar cells (fig. 226, h, i, j); but in some fishes the cells remain permanently bipolar (fig. 201). This is also the case, in all vertebrates, with the ganglion-cells of the eighth cranial nerve (ganglion of Scarpa and ganglion of the cochlea).

Development of sympathetic nerves and ganglia.—The ganglia on the sympathetic and on other peripheral nerves are developed from small collections of neuroblasts which have become detached from the rudiments of the

spinal ganglia; they give origin to axons and dendrons much in the same way as do the neuroblasts within the central nervous system.

Development of the nerve-sheaths.—The myelin sheath and the nucleated sheath (neurolemma) of the nerve-fibres are developed quite differently from

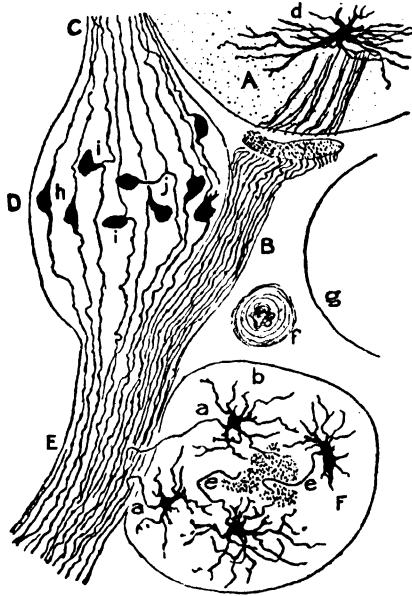


FIG. 226.—SPINAL AND SYMPATHETIC GANGLIA AND PART OF SPINAL CORD OF CHICK OF SEVENTEENTH DAY OF INCUBATION. (R. y Cajal.)

A, ventro-lateral part of spinal cord with d, a motor nerve-cell; the fibres of the ventral root are seen emerging and passing to B (the connexion appears interrupted in the section); C, posterior root formed of fibres which have grown from the ganglion-cells in D, a spinal ganglion; E, mixed spinal nerve; F, sympathetic ganglion; a, a, axons of sympathetic cells, passing to join the spinal nerve; b, dendrons of these cells; e, e, axons passing to the sympathetic cord; h, cells of spinal ganglion still bipolar; i, i, bipolar cells becoming transformed into unipolar; j, unipolar cell with T-junction; f, section of artery; g, body of vertebra.

one another. The myelin is formed by the axis-cylinder itself, whilst the neurolemma with its nuclei is derived from the sheath cells or *lemmal cells* which have wandered out from the ganglionic outgrowths of the neural crest.

Development of neuroglia.—The neuroglia cells are developed from the spongioblasts of the neural canal. These, in place of giving off an axon and dendrons like the neuroblasts, send out a number of fine processes in all directions from the cell-body; fibres are formed in some of these. As already stated, one type of neuroglia (microglia) appears to be developed from mesoderm.

LESSON XIX.

MODES OF TERMINATION OF NERVE-FIBRES.

1. **Pacinian corpuscles.**—Stretch out on filter-paper pieces of cat's mesentery and fix in Susa. Stain in dilute hæmatoxylin or carmine, and mount in balsam. Sketch the corpuscle under a low power, and afterwards draw under a high power the part of the core where the nerve enters and the part where it terminates. Notice the fibrous structure of the lamellar tunics of the corpuscle and the oval nuclei belonging to flattened endothelial cells which cover the tunics. The distinct lines, which when seen in the fresh corpuscles are generally taken for the tunics, are really the optical sections of these flattened cells. Pacinian corpuscles may also be observed in sections of skin in the subcutaneous tissue of various parts.

2. **Tactile corpuscles.**—Tactile corpuscles may be seen in sections of the palmar skin of the hand and fingers. Their study will be reserved for the present.

3. **End-bulbs.**—Dissect off a small portion of conjunctiva from the fresh eye of a calf. Spread it out on a slide with the under surface uppermost, and place upon it a drop of 1 per 1000 methylene-blue solution in 0·85 per cent. saline. Watch the preparation with a low power until the nerve-fibres come into view, then cover the preparation and trace them with the high power. They will be seen to terminate in end-bulbs.

Somewhat similar endings can be shown in the same manner in a piece of parietal peritoneum stripped off, laid out flat upon a slide and placed in methylene-blue solution. Do not cover the preparation until the nerve-fibres begin to show up.

4. **Grandry and Herbst corpuscles.**—Study the corpuscles of Grandry and Herbst in sections of the skin covering the duck's bill.

5. **Free nerve-endings.**—Mount in glycerine sections of a rabbit's cornea which has been stained with gold chloride by Klein's method (see Appendix). The sections should be cut by the freezing method. Notice the arrangement in plexuses of the darkly stained nerve-fibres and fibrils: (1) in the connective-tissue substance, (2) under the epithelium, and (3) between the epithelial cells. Make one or two sketches showing the arrangement of the fibrils.

6. **Nerve-endings in muscle.**—Spread out a shred of muscle which has been stained with gold chloride (see Appendix), and examine it with a low power to find the nerve-fibres crossing the muscular fibres and distributed to them. Occasionally nerve-fibres which end in muscle-spindles (sensory endings) may be observed.

The shreds of muscle are advantageously thinned out for observation by pressure upon the cover-glass: they should not be separated into their fibres. Search thoroughly for the close terminal ramifications (end-plates) of the axis-cylinders immediately within the sarcolemma. The endings are readily shown in the muscles of reptiles such as snakes and lizards and in the eye-muscles and intercostals of mammals.

SENSORY NERVE-ENDINGS.

Sensory nerve-fibres end either in *special terminal connective-tissue organs* or in *free terminal ramifications*. Within the special organs the actual nerve-ending is also generally ramified.

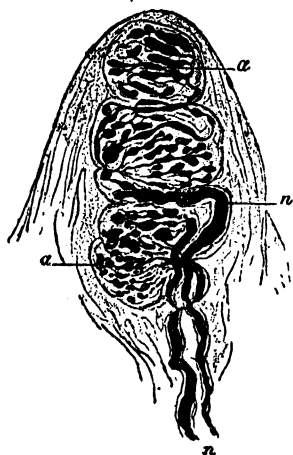


FIG. 227.—TACTILE CORPUSCLE WITHIN A PAPILLA OF THE SKIN OF THE HAND, STAINED WITH GOLD CHLORIDE. (Ranvier.)

n, two nerve-fibres passing to the corpuscle;
a, *a*, varicose ramifications of the axis-cylinders within the corpuscle.

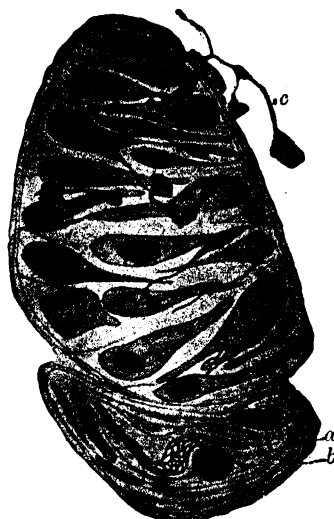


FIG. 228.—SECTION OF A TACTILE CORPUSCLE, SHOWING THE CELLS COMPOSING THE CORE AND THE RAMIFICATIONS OF THE AXIS-CYLINDER AMONG THEM, ENDING IN FIBRILLATED ENLARGEMENTS. (Van de Velde.)

a, axis-cylinder; *b*, capsule of corpuscle; *c*, a nerve-termination outside the corpuscle.

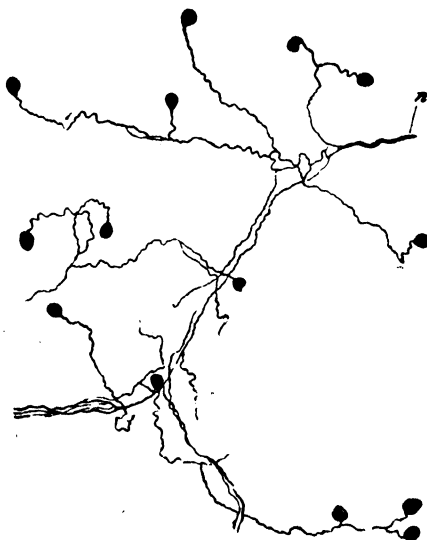


FIG. 229.—END-BULBS AT THE TERMINATIONS OF NERVES IN THE HUMAN CONJUNCTIVA, AS SEEN WITH A LENS. (Longworth.)



FIG. 230.—END-BULBS FROM THE HUMAN PERITONEUM. METHYLENE-BLUE PREPARATION. (Dogiel.) Highly magnified.

a, myelinate fibre; b, nucleated lamellated capsule of end-bulb; c, amyelinate fibres, probably destined for the capillaries which surround the end-bulbs.

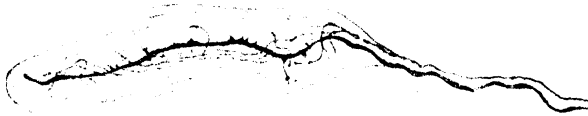


FIG. 231.—END-BULB FROM THE CENTRAL TENDON OF THE DIAPHRAGM OF THE DOG. (Dogiel.) Showing besides the main myelinate fibre terminating by an arborescence within the core, a second very fine myelinate fibre, forming a more delicate arborescence around the ending of the main fibre in the outer part of the core. Methylene-blue preparation.

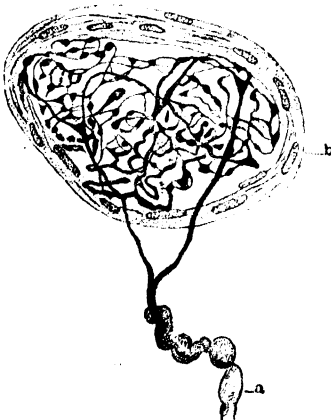


FIG. 232.—END-BULB FROM THE GLANS PENIS, SHOWING TERMINATION OF AXIS-CYLINDER. METHYLENE-BLUE PREPARATION. (Dogiel.)

a, myelinate nerve-fibre; b, sheath of end-bulb.

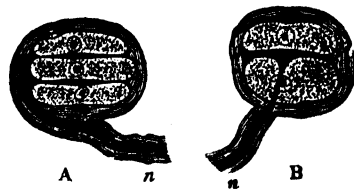


FIG. 233.—GRANDRY CORPUSCLES FROM THE DUCK'S TONGUE. (Izquierdo.)

A, composed of three cells, with two interposed disks into which the axis-cylinder of the nerve, n, is observed to pass; in B there is but one tactile disk enclosed between two tactile cells.

Nerve-endings in special connective-tissue organs.—Three chief kinds of these special organs are usually described, represented in man by *end-bulbs*, *tactile corpuscles*, and *Pacinian corpuscles*. The type is the same in all: a lamellated connective-tissue *capsule* encloses a *core* of a soft cellular material. The capsule is an expansion of the perineurium of the nerve. Within the core the axis-cylinder terminates either simply or by an arborescence. The variations which occur are chiefly due to the complexity of this arborescence and that of the capsule, which is simplest in the end-bulbs and most complex in the Pacinian corpuscles.

In *end-bulbs* and *tactile corpuscles* the perineural connective-tissue sheath of the myelinate fibre expands to form a bulbous enlargement, which is cylindrical or spheroidal in end-bulbs and ellipsoidal in tactile corpuscles. In both kinds of end-organ as the nerve-fibre enters (in the tactile corpuscle this happens only when it has reached the distal extremity after having wound spirally once or twice round the corpuscle) it loses its sheaths and is prolonged as an axis-cylinder only. This generally soon ramifies and its branches terminate after either a straight or a convoluted course within the organ; it sometimes remains almost unbranched (see figs. 227 to 232).

Tactile corpuscles occur in some of the papillæ of the skin of the hand and foot, in sections of which they will be studied (see fig. 335). End-bulbs are found in the conjunctiva of the eye, where in most animals they have a cylindrical or oblong shape, but in man they are spheroidal (fig. 229). They have also been found in papillæ of the lips and tongue, in serous membranes, in tendons and aponeuroses, and in the epineurium of the nerve-trunks; and somewhat similar sensory end-organs, the *genital corpuscles*, also occur in the integument of the penis and clitoris. Similar bodies of larger size are also met with in the neighbourhood of the joints where they are known as *articular corpuscles*. In the skin covering the duck's bill, a simple form of end-organ, the *corpuscle of Grandry* (fig. 233) occurs, consisting of two or more cells piled up within a capsule, with the axis-cylinder terminating in flattened expansions (*tactile disks*) between the cells. These so-called tactile disks are composed, like the terminations of axis-cylinders everywhere, of nerve-fibres which in the disk are arranged in a close network. Heringa, working with Boeke, has shown that this network is prolonged into the protoplasm of the cells which bound the disks, so that the actual ending of the axis-cylinder is intracellular. It is not improbable that this will prove true for many other instances of sensory nerve-termination, it having long been known to be the case with motor nerve-endings.

Pacinian corpuscles (figs. 234, 235) are larger and have a more complex structure than the tactile corpuscles and end-bulbs. They are composed of a number of concentric coats arranged like the layers of an onion, and enclosing the prolonged end of a nerve-fibre. A single myelinate nerve-fibre goes to each Pacinian corpuscle, encircled by a prolongation of the perineurium (*sheath of Henle*), and within this by endoneurium; when it reaches the corpuscle, of which it appears to form the stalk, the lamellæ of the perineurium expand into the tunics of the capsule. The nerve passes on, piercing the tunics, surrounded by endoneurium and still provided with a myelin sheath, to reach the central part of the corpuscle. Here the endoneurium gives place to a core of cylindrical shape, along the middle of which

the nerve-fibre, now deprived of its myelin sheath and neurolemma, passes in a straight course as a simple axis-cylinder to terminate at the farther end of the core, either in an arborisation or in a bulbous enlargement.

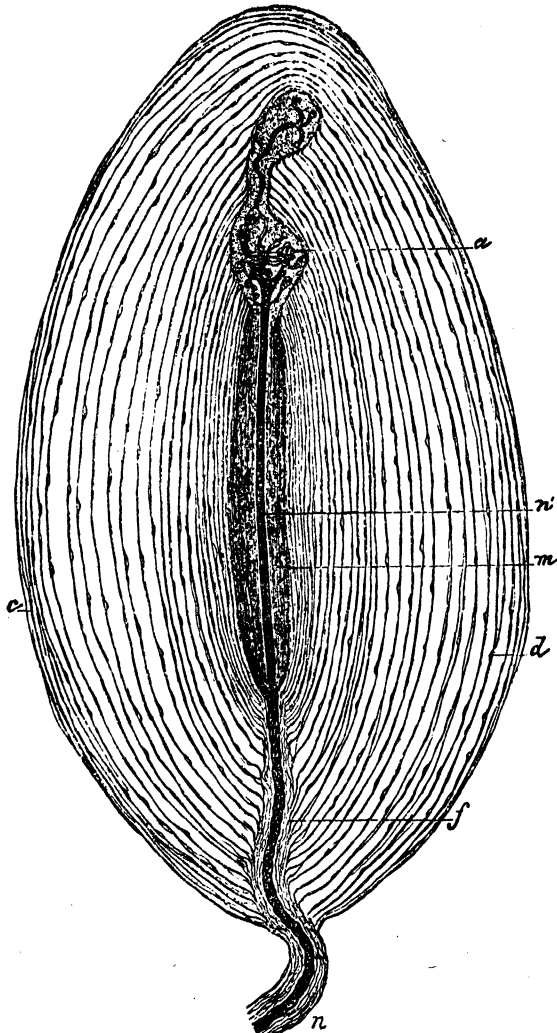


FIG. 234.—MAGNIFIED VIEW OF A PACINIAN BODY FROM THE OAT'S MESENTERY.
(Ranvier.)

n, stalk of corpuscle with nerve-fibre, enclosed in sheath of Henle, passing to the corpuscle; *n'*, its continuation through the core, *m*, as axis-cylinder only; *a*, its terminal arborisation; *c*, *d*, sections of endothelial cells of tunics, often mistaken for the tunics themselves; *f*, channel through the tunics which expands into the core of the corpuscle.

In its course through the core it may give off lateral ramifications, which penetrate to all parts of the core, and themselves end in fine branches.

The tunics of the capsules are composed of connective tissue, the fibres of which for the most part run circularly. They are covered on both surfaces with a layer of flattened endothelial cells (fig. 236), and here and there cleft-like lymph-spaces can be seen between them like those between the layers of the perineurium of a nerve.

Occasionally the axis-cylinder passes completely through one Pacinian corpuscle, reacquires its sheaths, and eventually ends in another corpuscle.

A simple form of Pacinian corpuscle with fewer tunics and a core formed of regularly arranged cells is found in birds, the *corpuscle of Herbst* (fig. 237).

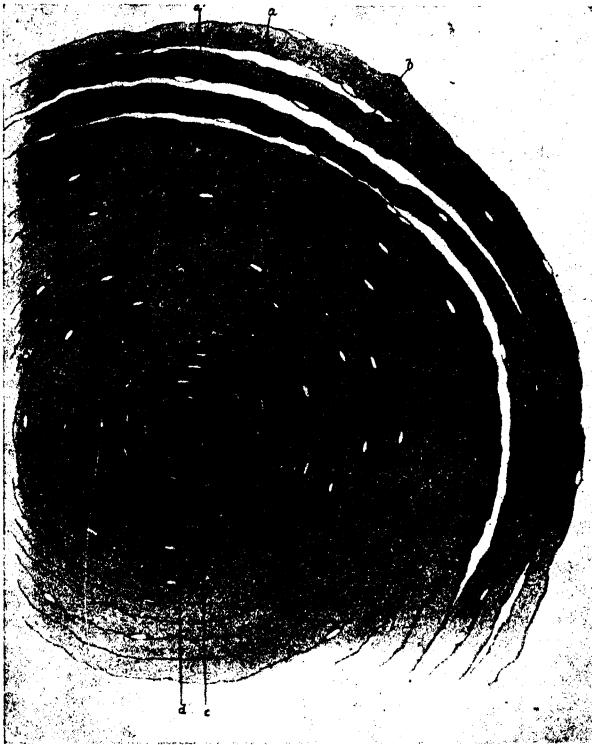


FIG. 235.—SECTION OF PACINIAN CORPUSCLE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

a, a', outer tunics of capsule; b, space between two tunics; c, d, inner tunics closely packed around the core in the middle of which the axis-cylinder is cut across.

Besides the myelinate fibre, which is always very conspicuous, it has been shown that both the Pacinian and Herbst corpuscles receive a fine amyelinate nerve-fibre which arborises over the outer surface of the core. A similar arrangement also obtains in Grandry's corpuscles, where the tactile cells are surrounded with such an arborisation.

Pacinian corpuscles occur in many situations, especially the deeper layers of the skin of the hands and feet and penis, the periosteum of bones, particularly in the neighbourhood of tendons and ligaments, and the connective tissue at the back of the abdomen. In the cat they are found very numerous in the mesentery, where they are easily obtained.

Although most of the nerve-endings in connective-tissue structures are enclosed within lamellated capsules, nerves are found to end in some situations

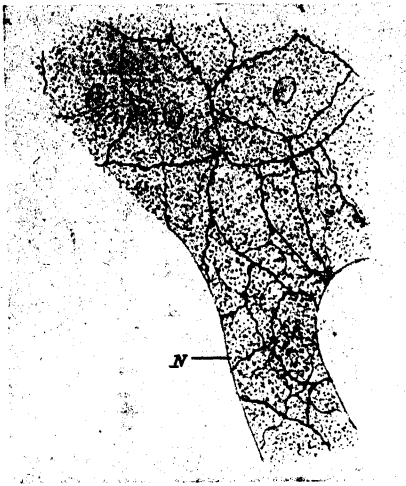


FIG. 236.—ENTRANCE OF NERVE (N) INTO PACINIAN CORPUSCLE. NITRATE OF SILVER PREPARATION. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

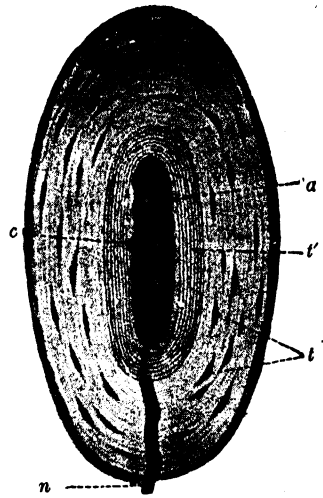


FIG. 237.—HERBST CORPUSCLE OF DUCK. (Sobotta.) $\times 380$.

n, myelinated nerve-fibre; a, its axis-cylinder, terminating in an enlargement at end of core; c, nuclei of cells of core; t, nuclei of cells of outer tunics; t', inner tunics.

in arborisations between bundles of connective-tissue fibres. This has been shown by Dogiel to occur in intermuscular connective-tissue septa (fig. 238),

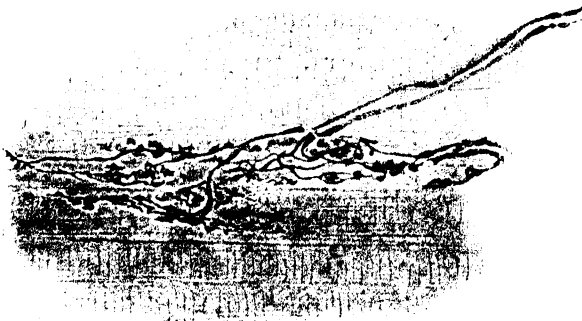


FIG. 238.—TERMINAL ARBORISATION FROM THE INTERMUSCULAR CONNECTIVE-TISSUE OF THE RECTUS ABDOMINIS OF THE RABBIT. METHYLENE-BLUE PREPARATION. (Dogiel.)

and in serous membranes; in the latter such arborisations may be quite superficial and placed just below the endothelium.

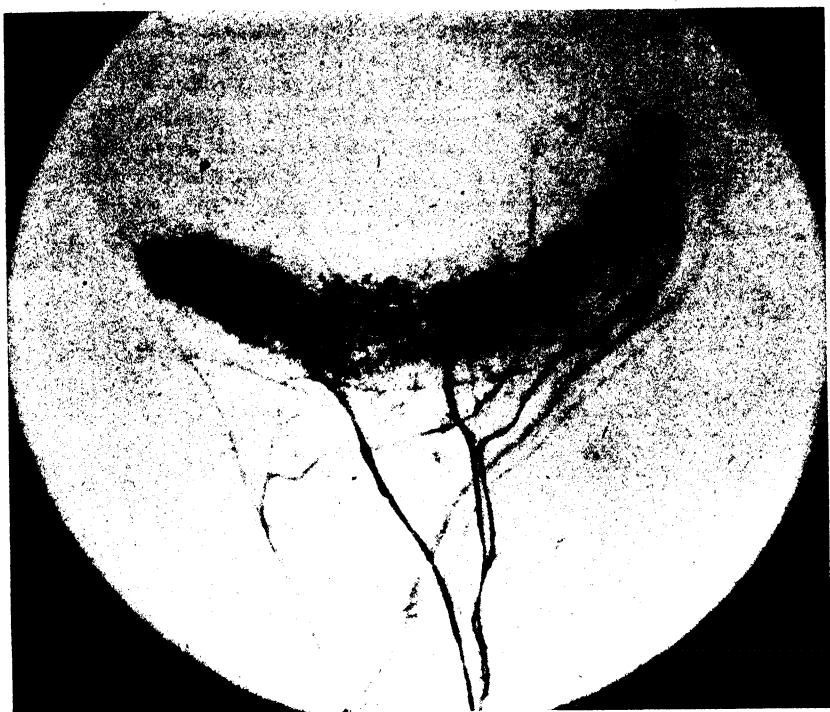


FIG. 239.—ORGAN OF RUFFINI, SHOWING ENTERING NERVES AND THEIR ARBORISATIONS IN THE CONNECTIVE-TISSUE CORE. (From a preparation belonging to Sir Charles Sherrington, and made by Ruffini himself from the subcutaneous connective tissue of his own finger.) (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 180$.

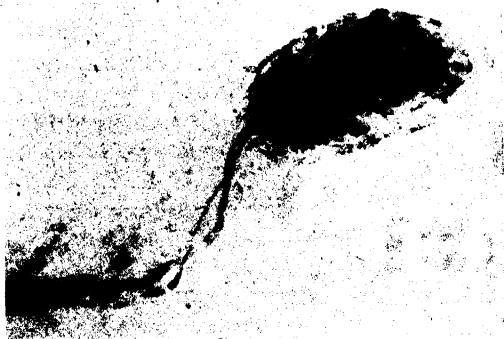


FIG. 240.—ORGAN OF GOLGI-MAZZONI FROM PERIMYSIUM OF GASTROCNEMIUS; HUMAN. (From a preparation by Sir Charles Sherrington.) (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 220$.

Organs of Ruffini.—These, which resemble long cylindrical end-bulbs, are connective-tissue bundles, within which the axis-cylinders of the nerves ramify, ending in flattened expansions (fig. 239). They occur fairly numerous in the subcutaneous tissue of the fingers. Other bulb-like organs, spheroidal, oval, or cylindrical in form, have been described by Ruffini under the name of Golgi-Mazzoni corpuscles (fig. 240); they appear to be varieties of the end-bulb. They also occur in the subcutaneous tissue of the pulp of the finger, in tendons, and in the fascial sheaths of muscles.

Organs of Golgi.—A special mode of nerve-ending is met with in many tendons, near the points of attachment of the muscular fibres. The tendon-bundles become somewhat enlarged and split into smaller fasciculi, and the nerve-fibres—one, two, or even more in number—pass to the enlarged parts and penetrating between the fasciculi lose their myelin sheaths, while the

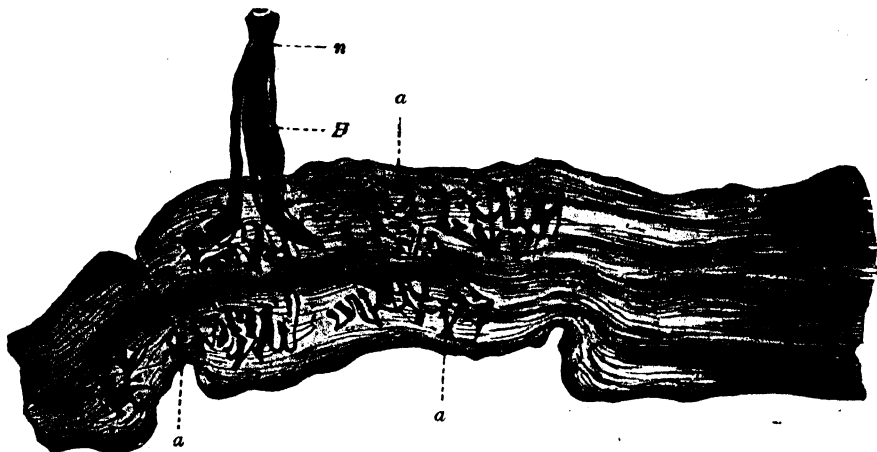


FIG. 241.—ORGAN OF GOLGI, MORE HIGHLY MAGNIFIED. (Ciaccio.)

n, entering nerve-fibre; *H*, its sheath of Henle; *a*, *a*, ramification of axis-cylinders between the tendon-bundles.

axis-cylinders end in a terminal arborisation, beset with irregular varicosities. The structure (fig. 241) is enclosed within a fibrous capsule continuous with the areolar tissue covering the bundles of the tendon; between the capsule and the organ proper is a lymph-space, similar to that which is found in the muscle-spindle.

Free nerve-endings.—When sensory nerve-fibres end in epithelium, they generally branch once or twice in the sub-epithelial connective tissue on nearing their termination. The sheaths of the fibres then successively become lost, first the connective tissue or perineural sheath, then the myelin sheath, and lastly the neurolemma, the axis-cylinder with its neuro-fibrils being alone continued. This branches and, interlacing with the ramifications of the axis-cylinders of neighbouring nerve-fibres, forms a primary plexus. From the primary plexus smaller branches come off, and form a secondary

plexus nearer the surface, generally immediately under the epithelium if the ending is in a membrane covered by that tissue. Finally, from the secondary

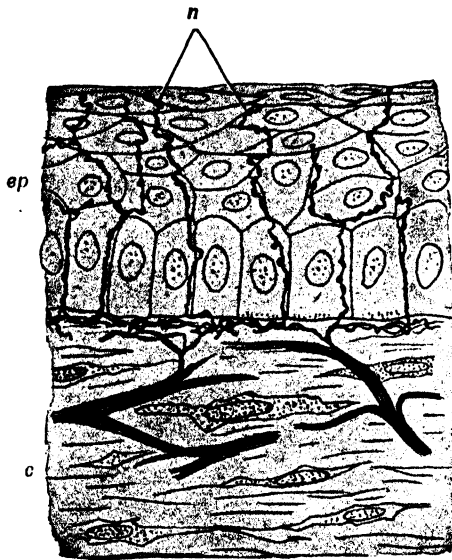


FIG. 242.—FREE NERVE-ENDINGS IN CORNEA. (From Maximow and Bloom, after R. y Cajal.)

ep, epithelium; c, connective tissue; n, free nerve-endings.

plexus nerve-fibrils proceed and terminate by ramifying amongst the tissue-cells (fig. 242), the actual ending being generally in free varicose fibrils. Free nerve-endings have been described by Kadanoff as lying both amongst the cell-bridges and even in the cells themselves of human skin. This mode of ending is well seen in the cornea of the eye, but can also be rendered evident in many other places.

Tactile disks.—In some situations the nerve-fibrils within a stratified epithelium terminate in flattened or crescentic expansions which lie in the interstices of the deeper epithelium cells, to some of which tactile cells they are applied. The expansions are known as

tactile disks, and they are characteristically developed in the pig's snout (fig. 243). Similar expansions are also found in the outer root

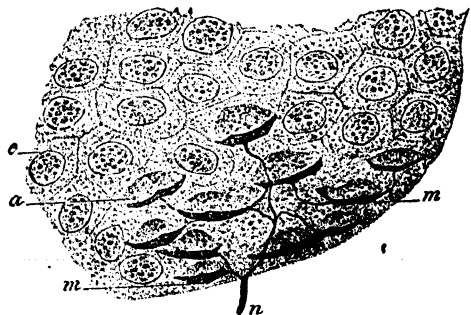


FIG. 243.—ENDING OF NERVE IN TACTILE DISKS IN THE PIG'S SNOOT. (Ranvier.)

n, myelinate fibre; m, terminal disks or menisci; e, cells of the Malpighian layer of the epidermis; a, cell to which a tactile disk is applied.

sheath of hairs and in the deeper part of the epidermis in various situations.

Sensory nerves of muscles.—The sensory nerves of muscles end in peculiar organs termed *muscle-spindles* (Kühne). Their structure has been specially

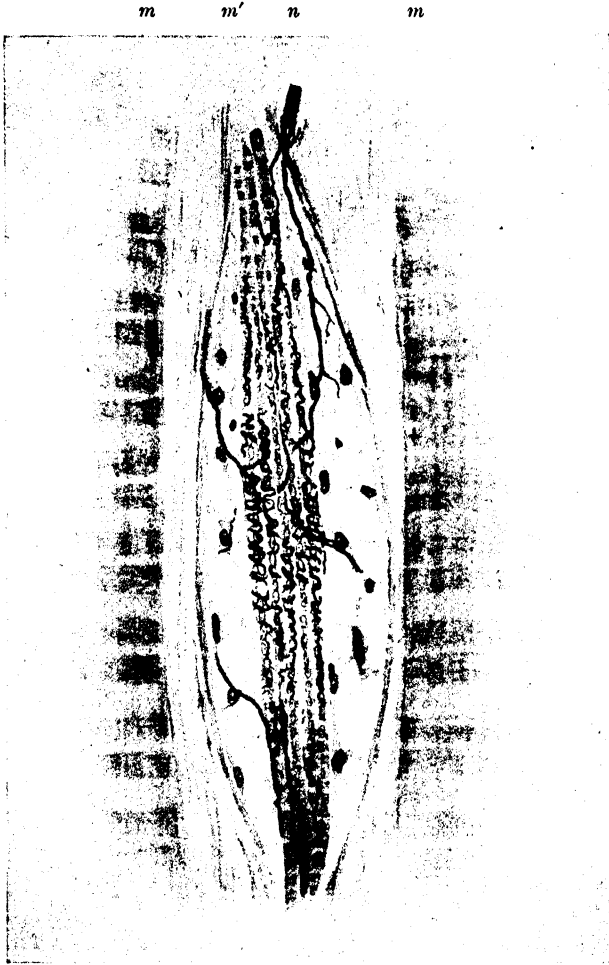


FIG. 244.—DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF A MUSCLE-SPINDLE IN SITU.
(Modified from Boeke.) Drawn by R. K. S. Lim.

m, m, ordinary fibres of the muscle; *m'*, bundle of intrafusal fibres; *n*, sensory nerve entering spindle and passing to terminate in annulo-spiral endings around its muscle-fibres.

investigated by Ruffini and by Sherrington. Sherrington has shown that the large myelinate nerves which they receive are derived from the dorsal root-ganglia, and they are therefore undoubtedly sensory organs.

The **muscle-spindle** is a fusiform body, from 0·75 to 4 mm. long, and from 0·08 to 0·2 mm. in diameter; it lies parallel with the general direction of the

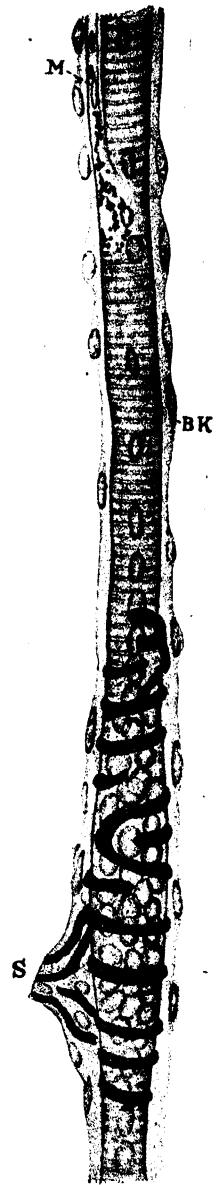
fibres of a muscle. It consists (figs. 244, 245) of a lamellated connective-tissue sheath externally, within which are from two to twelve peculiar 'intrafusal' muscle-fibres. These, with some connective tissue and the nerve-fibres, form an axial bundle between which and the sheath is a lymphatic periaxial space, bridged across by connective-tissue cells



FIG. 245.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF MUSCLE-SPINDLE, SHOWING ADJACENT MUSCLE-FIBRE (M), ANNULAR NERVE-FIBRE OF SPINDLE (A), ENTERING NERVE (N) AND LYMPH SPACE (L), AND INTRAFUSAL FIBRE (F). (Photograph and preparation by Dr. D. Denny-Brown.) Moderately magnified.

FIG. 246.—MUSCLE-FIBRE FROM A SPINDLE OF INTERCOSTAL MUSCLE OF CAT IN WHICH THE NERVE-ROOTS IMPLICATED HAD BEEN CUT WITHIN THE VERTEBRAL CANAL CLOSE TO THE SPINAL CORD FOUR DAYS PREVIOUSLY. (J. Boeke.)

S, sensory fibres, forming annular endings around a highly nucleated portion of the intrafusal muscle-fibres; M, ending of a fine motor nerve, which has undergone degeneration, showing that its origin was in the spinal cord; BK, connective-tissue sheath of the intrafusal muscle-fibre.



and fibres. The intrafusal muscle-fibres are somewhat like embryonic fibres in appearance, being smaller than the ordinary fibres of the muscle and having a relatively large number of nuclei with surrounding cytoplasm. At the

proximal end of the spindle they are usually only two or three in number, but they often become cleft as they pass through it; at the distal end they may terminate in tendon-bundles. The nerve-fibres which pass to the spindle are mostly of large size and are enveloped by a thick sheath of Henle. They divide within the spindle, but retain their myelin sheath for a time, although eventually terminating as axis-cylinders, which wind in a spiral manner between and around the intrafusal muscle-fibres (figs. 245, 246), which they clasp by flattened encircling branches, the *annulo-spiral endings*. Other, much finer, myelinate fibres pass to the spindle and terminate in ramified or plate-like expansions. According to some observers these fine fibres are prolonged

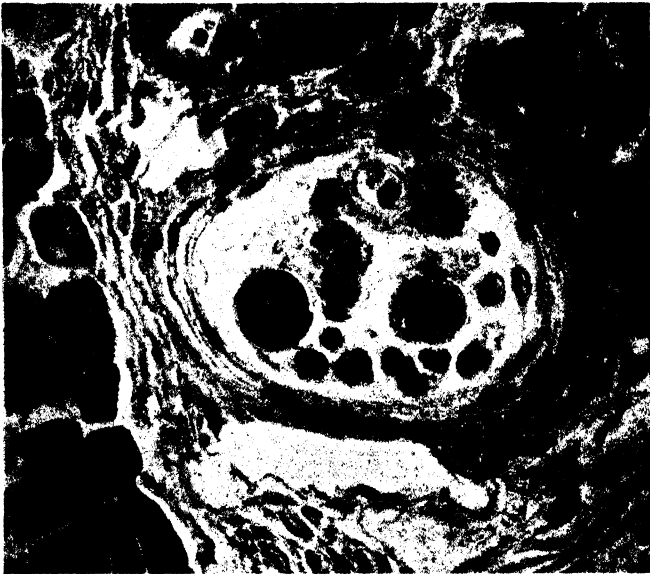


FIG. 247.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF HUMAN MUSCLE-SPINDLE OF BICEPS. THERE IS SOME ATROPHY OF THE SURROUNDING MUSCLE-FIBRES; THE SHEATH, INTRAFUSAL FIBRES AND LYMPH SPACES OF THE SPINDLE ARE CLEARLY SHOWN. (Preparation and photograph by Dr. D. Denny-Brown.) Highly magnified.

from the annulo-spiral endings of the coarser fibres; but Dogiel states that they run independently to the intrafusal bundle. None of the ordinary motor nerve-fibres appear to pass into the spindles, nor do the muscle-fibres of the spindle undergo atrophy on section of the motor nerve-roots, as is the case with ordinary muscle-fibres after section of their nerves. Boeke, however, describes the intrafusal fibres as provided with end-plates, like those which occur on the ordinary fibres, but they are much smaller. Both the end-plates and the fine myelinate fibres which supply them undergo Wallerian degeneration after section of the nerves from which they arise, which may, according to Boeke, be either spinal or sympathetic in origin.

It is not uncommon to find two or three spindles close to one another or even enclosed in a common sheath.

Another kind of ending of sensory fibres in muscle has been described in the form of an arborisation of nerve-fibrils around the ends of the muscle-fibres which are inserted into tendon (fig. 248).

MOTOR NERVE-ENDINGS.

In **cross-striated muscles**, the efferent nerves, which are for the most part large and myelinate, terminate in special end-organs, the so-called *end-plates* (figs. 249, 250). A myelinate fibre will branch two or three times before ending, and then each branch passes directly to about the middle of a muscle-fibre. Having reached this, the neurolemma of the nerve-fibre is continued into the sarcolemma of the muscle, the myelin sheath stops short, and the axis-cylinder ends in a close terminal ramification, with varicose expansions upon its branches. This ramification is embedded in a layer of granular sarcoplasm, the *sole*, which is collected into a small mass at the place of nerve-ending. Embedded in this mass of sarcoplasm are two kinds of nuclei: one oval in shape resembling muscle-nuclei generally; the other circular and more closely

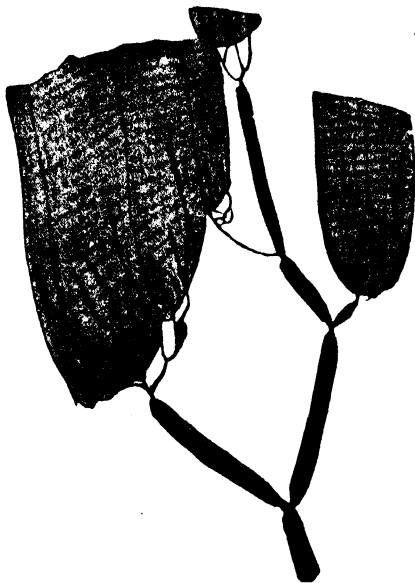


FIG. 248.—SENSORY NERVE TERMINATING IN ARBORISATIONS AROUND THE ENDS OF MUSCLE-FIBRES. (Ceccherelli.)



FIG. 249.—MOTOR NERVE-ENDINGS IN THE ABDOMINAL MUSCLES OF A BAT. GOLD PREPARATION. (Szymonowicz.) $\times 170$.

connected with the expanded and branched ending of the axis-cylinder. Aggregated around the nuclei are very numerous mitochondria.

When a motor nerve is cut and undergoes degeneration the nerve-endings become atrophied and disappear, but the *sole* and its nuclei remain ; and if

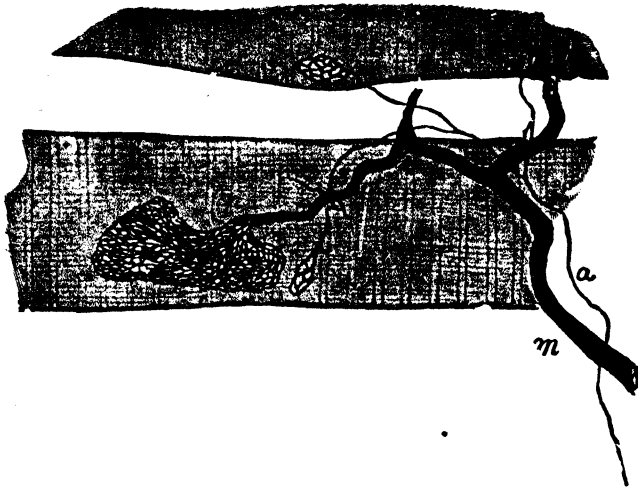


FIG. 250.—MUSCLE-FIBRES OF MOUSE WITH FINE AMYELINATE ACCESSORY FIBRES, DERIVED FROM THE SYMPATHETIC, ENDING IN SMALL EXPANSIONS, ONE NEAR AN END-PLATE. (J. Boeke.) $\times 1800$.

m, myelinate fibre ; *a*, accessory fibre.

the nerve undergoes regeneration a new axis-cylinder eventually finds its way to it and develops a ramification with the usual fibrillar network (Boeke).

In some cases the ramification of the axis-cylinder is restricted to a small portion of the muscular fibre, and forms with the granular bed a slight



FIG. 251.—MOTOR ENDINGS FROM AN OCULAR MUSCLE OF THE HEDGEHOG, SHOWING, BESIDES THE ENDING OF A MYELINATE FIBRE IN A RAMIFICATION AT THE END-PLATE, AN AMYELINATE FIBRE DERIVED FROM THE SYMPATHETIC, BIFURCATING, AND ITS FORKS TERMINATING WITH RELATIVELY SIMPLE ENDS, ONE AT THE END-PLATE OF THE MYELINATE FIBRE, THE OTHER AT A SMALL SPECIAL END-PLATE. (J. Boeke.)

prominence, the *eminence of Doyère*. This is the case in insects and mammals. In reptiles the ramification is rather more extended than in mammals, whilst in the frog it is spread over a considerable length of the fibre. The ramification often shows a fibrillar structure when fixed and stained. In mammals there appears to be only one such end-plate to each fibre ;

in reptiles there may be several. The end-plate is covered, externally to the sarcolemma, by an expansion of the sheath of Henle of the nerve-fibre. This expansion has been termed the *end-sheath* or *telolemma*.

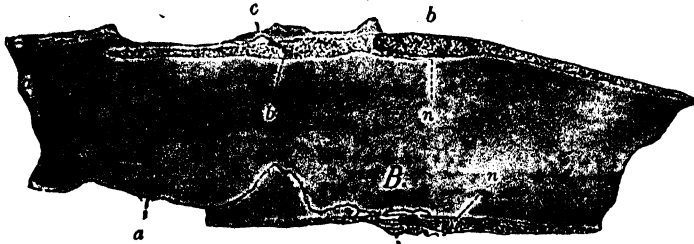


FIG. 252.—ENDING OF NERVE-FIBRILS IN PLAIN MUSCLE. (Huber and de Witt.)

a, fibrils passing to their termination; b, a terminal fibril; c, a branch passing to another muscle-cell; n, nuclei of cells.

Besides the myelinate nerve-fibre with its end-plate, many if not all muscle-fibres receive an accessory amyelinate nerve-filament which also ends in a fibrillar expansion at the surface of the fibre (figs. 250, 251). These filaments do not degenerate if the motor nerve is cut before it receives fibres from the sympathetic, but do degenerate if the sympathetic supply is cut off. It may be assumed, therefore, that they are derived from the latter. But a few may come from the spinal cord since, even after ablation of the sympathetic, there are still a few fine undegenerated fibres in muscle (Boeke). These accessory fibres are also described by Garven (1925) as they occur in hedgehog, frog, lizard, and man.

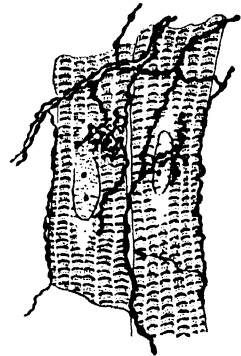


FIG. 253.—ENDING OF NERVES IN CARDIAC MUSCLE. (Smirnow.)

In **involuntary muscle**, both plain and cardiac (figs. 252, 253), the nerve-fibres, which near their termination are entirely amyelinate, end in plexuses. The primary plexuses are generally furnished with ganglion-cells in abundance. Such gangliated plexuses are best developed in the wall of the intestine, where they form the *enteric nervous system*. The cells of the plexuses send out axon-processes to form secondary plexuses, from which the fibres pass to end in ramifications among the muscle-fibres, to the surface of which their branches, often slightly enlarged, are applied (Huber and de Witt). Boeke, however, finds (in the ciliary muscle) that the terminal fibrils pass actually *into* the muscle-cells, ending within them in loop-like expansions.

LESSON XX.

STRUCTURE OF THE LARGER BLOOD-VESSELS.

1. EXAMINE transverse sections of a medium-sized peripheral artery and vein, *e.g.*, popliteal or radial, fixed in Susa. In this preparation the limits of the vascular coats can be well seen and also the differences which they present in the arteries and veins respectively. The sections should be stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin; also with orcein and Van Gieson. Weigert's elastin stain should not be used after Susa fixation as the latter tends to inhibit the stain.

2. Mount in glycerine a thin tangential slice cut from the inner surface of a large artery which, after having been cut open longitudinally and washed with distilled water, has been rinsed with 1 per cent. nitrate of silver solution and subsequently with distilled water and exposed for a minute or two to sunlight. It is then hardened in 90 per cent. alcohol and the section dehydrated and mounted in dammar. This preparation will show the outlines of the endothelium-cells which line the vessel. A similar preparation may be made from a large vein.

3. A piece of artery which has been macerated in 33 per cent. alcohol is to be teased so as to isolate some of the muscular cells of the middle coat and portions of the elastic layers (networks and fenestrated membranes) of the inner and middle coats. The teasing is best done by holding the piece with forceps and fraying the edge with a needle in a drop of distilled water, thus separating small fragments and single muscle-cells. The fragments may be stained cautiously with diluted hæmatoxylin, and dilute glycerine afterwards added at the edge of the cover-glass. The muscle-cells are recognisable by their long rod-shaped nuclei; the cells often have an irregular outline. Sketch one or two and also a piece of the elastic network or fenestrated membrane. The fenestrated membrane is best obtained from one of the arteries of the base of the brain; it is also seen in the arteries within the kidney.

4. Examine transverse sections of aorta and carotid, fixed in Susa. Notice the preponderance of elastic tissue in these as compared with the radial. To show the elastic tissue well, sections are stained with orcein and 1 per cent. neutral red.

5. Examine transverse section of vena cava inferior, similarly fixed. Notice the comparatively thin layer of circular muscle, and outside this the thick layer of longitudinal muscular bundles in the adventitia.

ARTERIES.

An artery is usually described as being composed of three coats, an *inner* or *elastic*, a *middle* or *muscular*, and an *outer* or *areolar* (fig. 254). It would be more correct to describe the wall of an artery as being mainly composed of muscular and elastic tissue, lined internally by a pavement epithelium or *endothelium*, and strengthened externally by an elastic and connective-tissue layer, the *adventitia*.

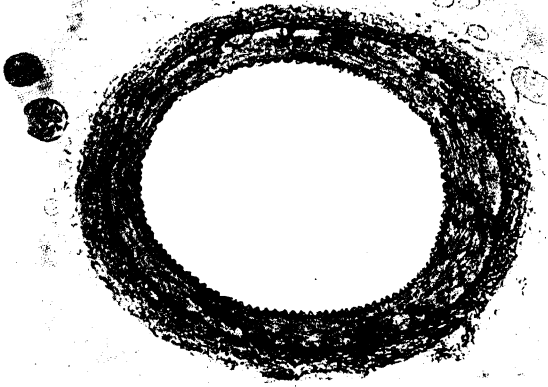


FIG. 254.—SECTION OF RENAL ARTERY OF DOG. (G. Mann.) Low power. Photograph.

The elastic layer of the thin inner coat is thrown into corrugations by the post-mortem contraction of the middle coat. The distinction between middle coat and adventitia is well shown. Some branches of the renal nerves are seen, cut across, in the tissue around the artery.



FIG. 255.—SECTION ACROSS POSTERIOR TIBIAL ARTERY AND VEIN: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 75$.

a, artery; v, vein; c, connective tissue uniting the vessels and in complete continuity with the tunica adventitia of each.

The inner coat or *tunica intima* is lined by a thin layer of *endothelium* the cells of which are somewhat elongated in the direction of the axis of



FIG. 256.—SECTION OF A SMALL ARTERY OF CAT.
(H. M. Carleton.) Photograph.

The inner coat is corrugated from post-mortem contraction of the middle coat. This latter is the darkly stained layer and in it are seen the elongated nuclei of the muscle-cells of which it is mainly composed. The adventitia merges into the surrounding connective tissue. At *l* a periarterial lymphatic is cut; at *n*, nerve-bundles.

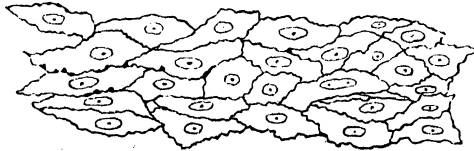


FIG. 257.—ENDOTHELIAL LAYER LINING THE POSTERIOR TIBIAL ARTERY: MAN.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 250$.

the vessel (fig. 257), and form a smooth lining to the tube. After death they become easily detached.

The endothelium is the essential layer in all blood-vessels. It is always the first part to be developed, and in some—the capillaries—it remains as the only layer of the vessel.

Next to the endothelium of the arteries comes an elastic layer in the form either of an *elastic network* or of a *fenestrated membrane* (fig. 258). In some arteries there is a layer of fine connective tissue intervening between the endothelium and the fenestrated membrane, the *subendothelial layer*.

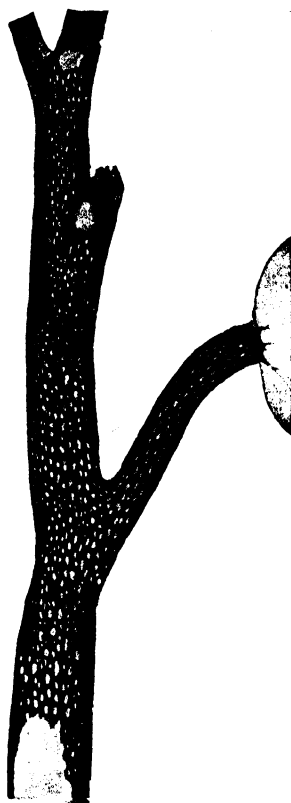


FIG. 258.—FENESTRATED MEMBRANE OF ONE OF THE CORTICAL BRANCHES OF THE RENAL ARTERY. (Mann.)

The **middle coat** or *tunica media* consists mainly of circularly disposed plain muscular fibres, but it is also pervaded in most arteries by a network of elastic fibres connected with the fenestrated membrane of the inner coat (fig. 259): sometimes this elastic network is almost as much developed as the muscular tissue itself. This is particularly the case with the largest arteries, such as the aorta and its immediate branches, whereas in the arteries of the limbs, especially those of smaller size, the middle coat is composed almost purely of muscular tissue (figs. 254, 256), the elastic tissue being

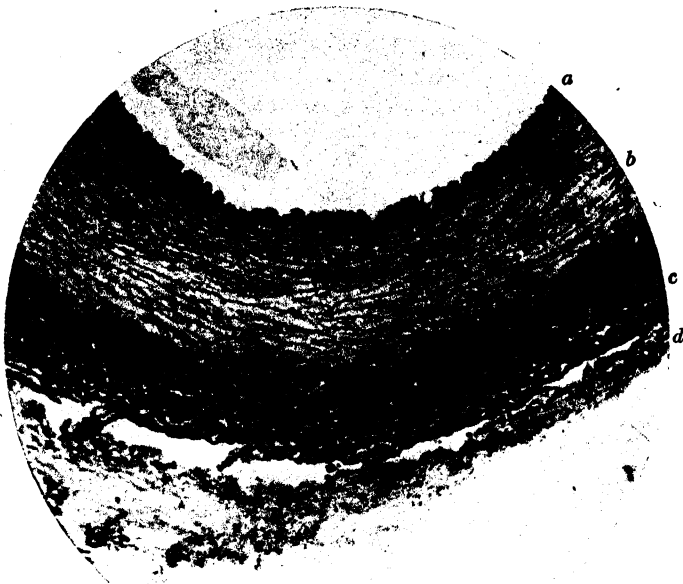


FIG. 259.—SECTION OF ARTERY STAINED WITH ORCEIN TO SHOW THE ELASTIC TISSUE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 50$.

a, elastic lamina of inner coat, corrugated from contraction of muscular coat; *b*, elastic fibres forming a network which pervades the middle coat; *c*, numerous and thick elastic fibres of the outer coat; *d*, surrounding connective tissue.

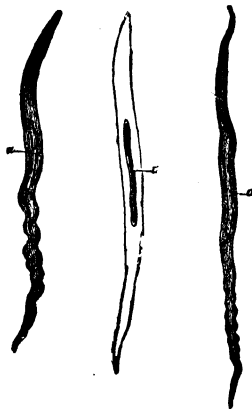


FIG. 260.—MUSCLE-CELLS OF ARTERY. (Kölliker.)

a, nucleus.

best developed in the vessels nearest the aorta, becoming less in the more peripherally situated.

The muscular fibres are short as compared with those of the viscera. They have long rod-shaped nuclei (fig. 260) which assume a spiral form when the vessel is fixed with its muscular tissue in a contracted condition. The muscle-cells are often very irregular, particularly so if the middle coat contains much elastic tissue.

The **outer coat** is formed of areolar connective tissue. It also contains a good many elastic fibres, especially next to the middle coat (fig. 259). But

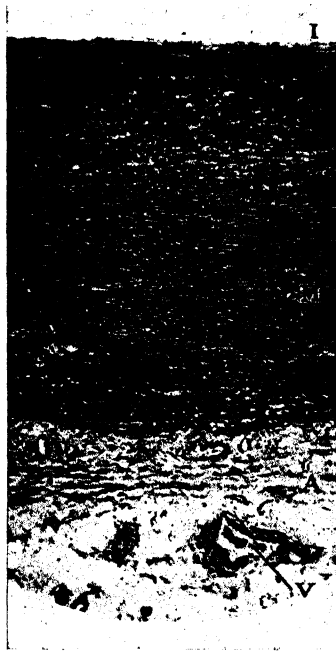


FIG. 261.—HUMAN AORTA. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 47$.

The intima (I) is barely visible; the media (M) and adventitia (A), the latter containing vasa vasorum (V), are clearly shown.

in the large arteries which have much elastic tissue in the middle coat this tissue is deficient in the outer coat.

The strength of an artery depends largely upon the connective tissue of this coat; it is far less easily cut or torn than the other coats, and it serves to resist undue expansion of the vessel. Its outer limit is not sharply marked, for it tends to blend with the surrounding connective tissue, hence the term *tunica adventitia*.

Variations in different arteries.—The *aorta* (figs. 261, 262) differs in some respects in structure from an ordinary artery. Its inner coat is lined by the usual endothelium (fig. 263); outside this is a considerable thickness of subendothelial connective tissue, with elastic tissue chiefly composed of fine fibres; it is not especially marked off by a definite elastic layer from the middle

coat, so that the inner and middle coats are blended with one another. There is a great development of elastic tissue in the middle coat, where it

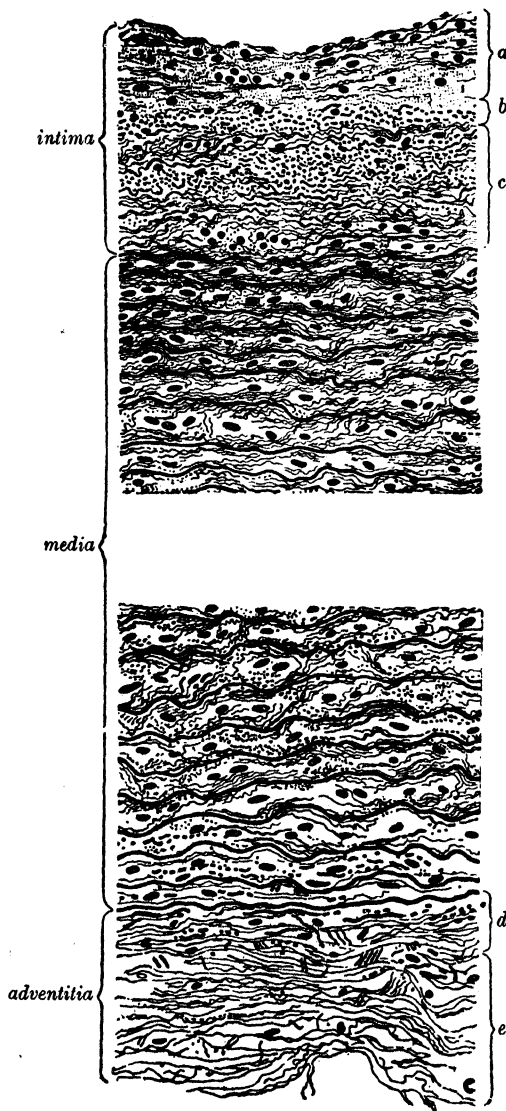


FIG. 262.—SECTION OF AORTA MORE MAGNIFIED. (Grünstein.)

a, endothelial and subendothelial layers of inner coat; *b*, *c*, outer layer of inner coat containing many fine elastic fibres; *d*, *e*, parts of outer coat.

forms membranous layers or lamellar networks which alternate with the muscular layers. A good deal of connective tissue also takes part in the formation of the middle coat, making it unusually strong. This middle coat

constitutes almost the entire thickness of the wall, the inner and outer coats being thin. Near the ventricles both the aorta and pulmonary artery have a certain amount of cardiac muscle in this coat.

Apart from the relative amount of elastic tissue which has been alluded to, the variations which occur in the arterial system have reference chiefly to the development and arrangement of the muscular tissue.

Thus in many of the larger arteries, especially in the *aorta* and its larger branches, and in the *popliteal* and the *brachial*, there are longitudinal muscular fibres at the inner boundary of the middle coat; in some arteries they occur amongst the circular fibres of the middle coat and occasionally even in the outer coat, as in the upper part of the descending aorta.

In the *subclavian* there are more longitudinal fibres than circular.

In the part of the *umbilical arteries* within the umbilical cord there is a complete layer of longitudinal fibres internal to the circular fibres and another external to them, whilst the amount of elastic tissue is very small.

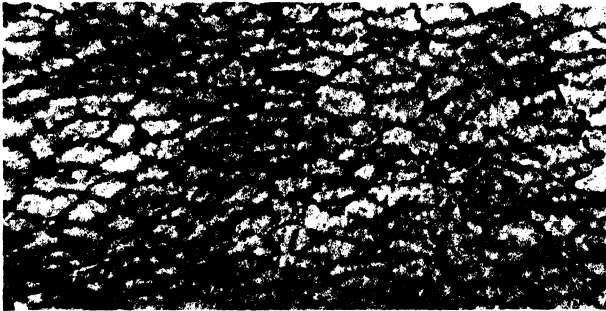


FIG. 263.—ENDOTHELIUM OF AORTA: HUMAN. SILVER NITRATE PREPARATION. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 230$.

Longitudinal fibres are also present in some other arteries (*iliac, superior mesenteric, splenic, renal*, etc.), external to the circular fibres, and therefore in the outer coat of the artery.

The *pulmonary arteries* have a well-developed muscular coat, although it is generally thinner than in arteries of corresponding size belonging to the systemic circulation. In the guinea-pig and opossum the muscular coat of the pulmonary arteries shows a peculiarity of structure in that it is thickened in some parts and absent or nearly absent between the thickened parts, thus giving the arteries a varicose appearance (Schultz and Jordan). In ruminants (ox, sheep) and in the pig the muscular coat of the pulmonary arteries is disposed in an open spiral.

VEINS.

The veins resemble the arteries in general structure, but exhibit certain differences. In the *inner coat* (fig. 264) the same layers are present, but the elastic tissue is less developed, and may be quite inconspicuous; it seldom takes the form of a complete membrane. The endothelium-cells are less

elongated than those of the arteries. The **middle coat** contains less elastic tissue and also much less muscular tissue, being partly occupied by bundles of connective-tissue fibres. These are continuous with those of the **outer**

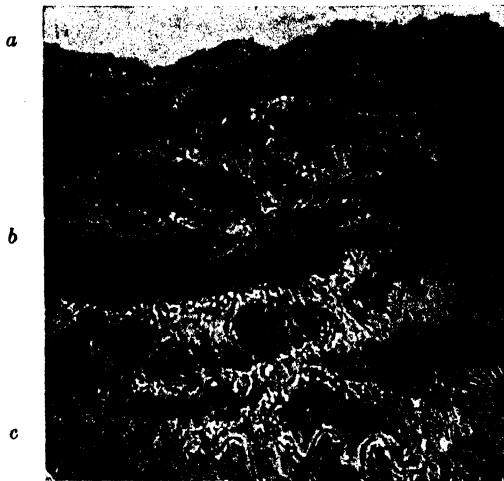


FIG. 264.—SECTION OF POSTERIOR TIBIAL VEIN: MAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 230.

a, endothelial layer; b, middle coat (muscle, with connective and elastic tissues); c, adventitia.

coat which is relatively better developed in the veins than in the arteries, so that, although thinner, the walls are often stronger.

Valves.—Many of the veins are provided with *valves* (fig. 265), which are crescentic pocket-like folds of the inner coat strengthened by fibrous tissue:

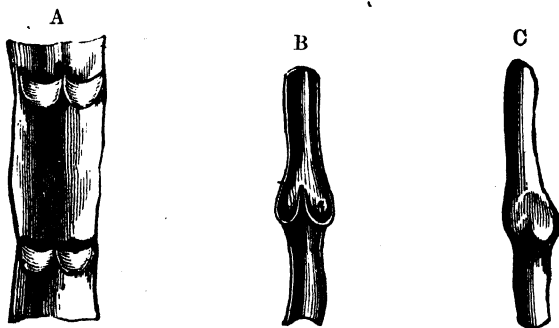


FIG. 265.—DIAGRAM SHOWING VALVES OF VEINS. (W. Sharpey.)

A, vein laid open showing the folds forming a valve; B, longitudinal section through a vein at a valve; C, a distended vein showing the swellings opposite the valve-folds.

a few muscular fibres may be found in the valve near its attachment. The layer of the inner coat is rather thicker and the endothelium-cells are more elongated on the side which is subject to friction from the current of blood than on that which is turned towards the wall of the vessel. The vein is

dilated on the heart side of each crescentic valve-fold, and as there are usually two such folds for each valve in the larger veins the dilatations are opposite one another, and when the vein is distended by obstructing the flow of blood in it they form knot-like swellings upon its course. There are no valves in veins less than 2 mm. in diameter and it is chiefly the larger veins of the limbs that possess valves. They are wanting in most of the veins of the viscera, although occurring in some of the tributaries of the portal vein. They are also lacking in all veins within the cranium and vertebral canal, in the veins of the bones, and in the umbilical vein.

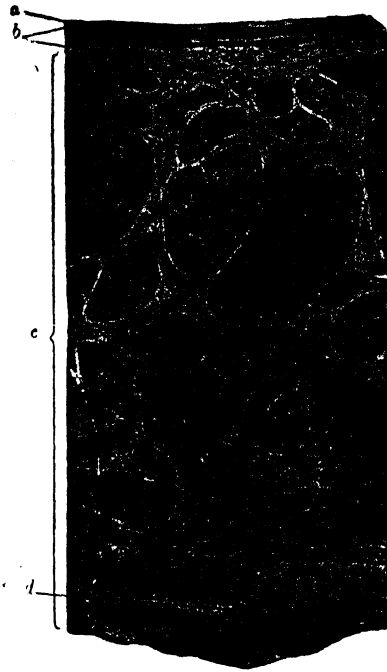


FIG. 266.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF THE INFERIOR VENA CAVA OF THE DOG.
(Szymonowicz.) $\times 150$.

a, intima; b, thin layer of circular muscle; c, thick adventitia with longitudinal muscular bundles; d, a vas vasis.

Variations in different veins.—The veins of different parts vary considerably in structure:—

In many veins longitudinal muscular fibres are found in the inner part of the middle coat, as in the *iliac*, *femoral* and *saphenous*.

In the *umbilical* vein within the umbilical cord there are three muscular layers as in the corresponding arteries; in contradistinction to these the vein has a well-developed internal elastic layer. Hence, when the umbilical cord is cut the vein remains open, while its arteries, which have very little elastic tissue, contract and close up.

In some other veins, longitudinal fibres occur external to the circularly

disposed fibres; they may be described as belonging to the outer coat. This is the case with the abdominal, and especially the hepatic, portion of the *inferior vena cava* (fig. 266), and some of its tributaries (the *renal*, *supra-renal*, and to a less extent the *hepatic* veins); also with the *portal* vein and its tributaries.

In the *superior vena cava*, in the upper part of the *inferior vena cava* and in the *jugular*, *subclavian*, and *innominate* veins muscular fibres are almost entirely absent from the middle coat and there are but few in the adventitia.

The veins of the pia mater, brain and spinal cord, retina, and bones, and the venous sinuses of the dura mater and placenta have no muscular tissue.

Vessels and nerves of blood-vessels.—The larger arteries and veins possess blood-vessels, the *vasa vasorum*, and lymphatics, both of which ramify chiefly in the external coat. Nerves are distributed to the muscular tissue of the middle coat, after forming a plexus in the outer coat (fig. 267). Most of the

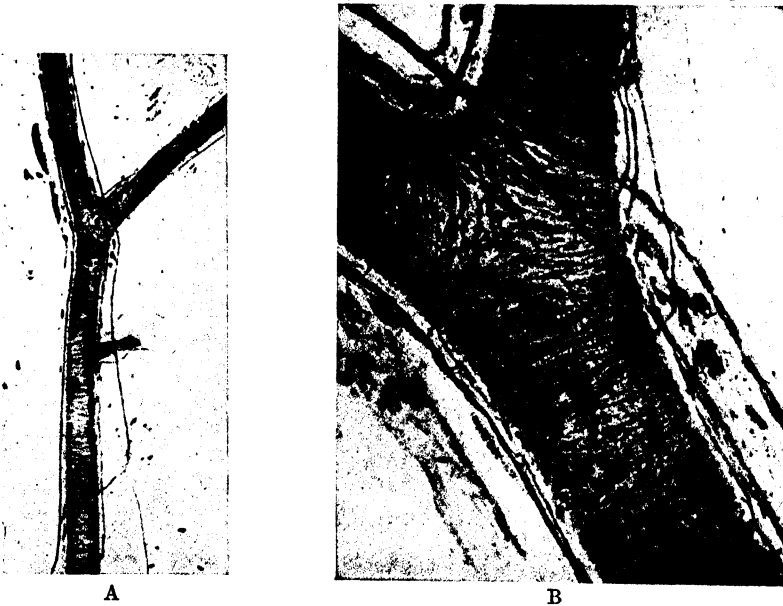


FIG. 267.—NERVES DISTRIBUTED TO A SMALL ARTERY. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

A, magnified 52 diameters; B, magnified 290 diameters. The preparation is from a lizard's muscle, stained with gold chloride, and in B fine nerve-filaments are seen passing to the muscular coat.

nerves are amyelinate. But in larger vessels there are a certain number of myelinate fibres intermingled with the amyelinate and passing to end in localised arborescences, partly in the adventitia, partly in the intima. These myelinate fibres are probably afferent; most if not all of the amyelinate are efferent and derived from the sympathetic system. In the aorta of man and in some of the larger mammals Pacinian corpuscles are here and there met with in the adventitia.

LESSON XXI.

SMALL BLOOD-VESSELS AND LYMPH-VESSELS.

SEROUS MEMBRANES. MICROSCOPIC STUDY OF THE CIRCULATION.

DEVELOPMENT OF BLOOD-VESSELS.

1. STRETCH lightly on filter-paper pieces of mesentery of a small mammal. Float these, tissue downwards, on a suitable fixative (*e.g.*, Susa). Stain with dilute hæmatoxylin or carmine and mount. Small arteries and veins, capillaries and often lacteals are well shown in such preparations.

2. Mount in dammar a piece of the omentum (or mesentery) of the rabbit, stained with silver nitrate. The membrane should be stretched over a ring of vulcanite. A larger piece may conveniently be fixed by spreading it over a glass plate (lantern slide) and, having brought its margins round the edges of the plate, placing another plate of the same size at the back, and binding the plates together with two rubber bands. Whichever method is used, the exposed surface is treated in the following way: Rinse with distilled water, cover for five minutes with 1 per cent. silver nitrate solution, again wash with distilled water and expose to sunlight in water. When slightly browned, the preparation is removed from the light. Pieces may now be cut off from the membrane, floated flat on a slide, allowed to dry completely and mounted in dammar; they should include blood-vessels. Or the glass plate or ring with the omentum stretched over it may, after staining with silver, be placed in alcohol to fix and dehydrate the tissue and cleared with clove oil before cutting off pieces to be mounted in dammar. It is easier to cut up the membrane after treatment with clove oil. In either case the nuclei may be advantageously stained with hæmatoxylin after being browned with silver nitrate.

The preparation is intended to show the smaller blood-vessels and accompanying lymphatics, and the endothelium of the serous membrane. Make sketches.

In this and all other silvered preparations great care must be taken not to rub, pull or crumple the membrane or to injure it in any way.

3. Examine sections of the thoracic duct fixed in Susa. Unless filled with chyle it may be difficult to find. Therefore the animal (cat or dog) should be fed with fat (which may first be deeply stained with Sudan III) three hours before killing it. The sections are made in the same way as sections of the blood-vessels.

4. Kill a frog by destroying the brain and study the circulation of the blood in the mesentery. It can also be studied in the web of the frog's foot, in the lung, bladder or tongue of the frog or toad, and in the tail of the tadpole or of any small fish. But for observing the phenomena attending commencing inflammation and the emigration of leucocytes from the vessels, the mesentery is the most convenient part. The decerebrated frog may be immobilised with urethane or by placing it in water in which a little ether has been shaken up: a lateral incision is made in the abdominal wall, a loop of intestine drawn out, and laid over a ring of cork which is covered with glass and cemented to a glass or cork plate (fig. 268). The membrane must be kept wet with frog-Ringer. A low-power objective is used for studying the circulation, higher magnifications being obtained by the employment of high-power oculars.

THE SMALL BLOOD-VESSELS.

The coats of the small arteries and veins are simpler in structure than those of the larger vessels, but contain the same elements. Thus there are

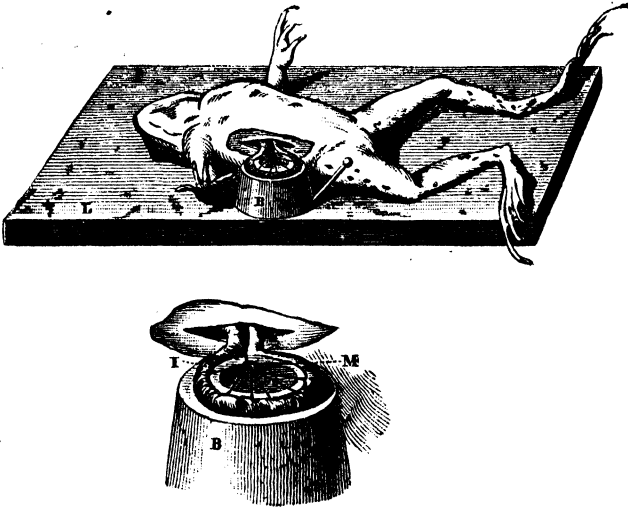


FIG. 268.—METHOD OF STUDYING THE CIRCULATION IN THE FROG'S MESENTERY.
(Ranvier.)

L, cork or glass plate; B, perforated cork, the aperture in which is closed by a circular glass cover; M, mesentery laid over the glass cover; I, intestine. The brain is destroyed and the animal immobilised with urethane.

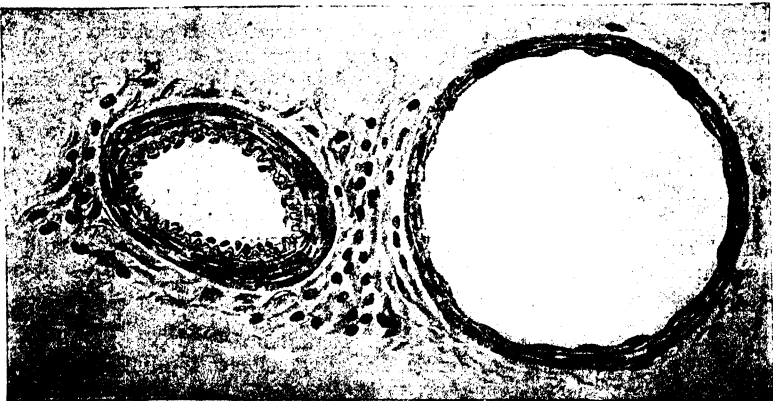


FIG. 269.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF A SMALL ARTERY AND VEIN.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 250$.

a lining endothelium and an elastic layer, the two together forming an *inner coat* or *intima*; a *middle coat* or *media*, of circularly disposed plain muscular tissue; and an *outer coat* or *adventitia*. The same differences are found

between the smaller arteries and veins as with the larger; the walls of the venous vessels being thinner and containing less muscular tissue (fig. 269), and the lining endothelium-cells, much elongated in both vessels, being far longer and narrower in the small arteries than in the corresponding veins (fig. 270).

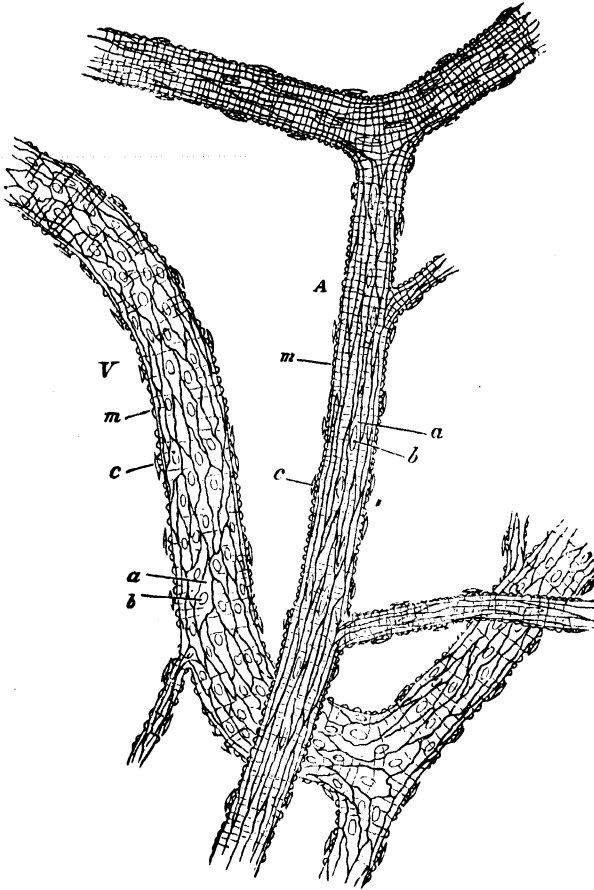


FIG. 270.—A SMALL ARTERY, *A*, AND VEIN, *V*, FROM THE SUBCUTANEOUS CONNECTIVE TISSUE OF A RAT, TREATED WITH SILVER NITRATE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 175$.

a, a, endothelial cells with *b, b*, their nuclei; *m, m*, transverse markings due to staining of the transverse muscle-fibres; *c, c*, nuclei of fibroblasts or histiocytes applied to exterior of vessel.

In the smallest vessels it will be found that the elastic layer has entirely disappeared in the veins, and that the muscular tissue is considerably reduced in thickness in both kinds of vessel. Indeed, it is soon represented by but a single layer of cells, and these eventually no longer form a complete layer. In the smaller arteries elastic fibres are lacking in the media, while in the largest arteries the elastic fibres are very common, *e.g.*, aorta, carotid and femoral arteries. By this time, also, the outer coat as well as the elastic layer of the

inner coat have disappeared from both arteries and veins. The vessels are reduced, therefore, to the condition of a tube formed of endothelium-cells, with a partial covering of circularly disposed muscle-fibres.

Even in the smallest vessels which are not capillaries the differences between arteries and veins are still manifested. These differences may be recapitulated as follows : The veins are larger than the corresponding arteries ; they branch at less acute angles ; their muscle-cells are fewer, and their endothelium-cells less elongated ; the elastic layer of the inner coat is always less marked, and disappears sooner as the vessels become smaller.

CAPILLARIES.

When traced to their smallest branches the arteries and veins are eventually seen to be continued into a network of the smallest blood-vessels



FIG. 271.—ENDING OF NERVE-FIBRILS ON CAPILLARY VESSELS. (Dogiel.)

or capillaries. The walls of these are composed only of flattened endothelium-cells continuous with those that line the arteries and veins ; these cells can be exhibited by staining with nitrate of silver. The cell-outlines are not shown in developing capillaries ; in these, silver nitrate shows no elective staining. This is the case also in the adult with the capillaries of the villi, those of the choroid coat of the eye (Eberth), and those of the kidney-glomeruli (Ranvier) ; in all these places the lining cells form a syncytium.

Capillaries vary in size, averaging $8\ \mu$ to $20\ \mu$ in diameter in fixed and stained specimens. They also vary greatly in the closeness of their meshes and their arrangement in different parts, which is mainly determined by the disposition of the tissue-elements. These points are best studied in injected

preparations, and will be described when the structure of the various organs is considered.

Usually the arterioles pass gradually into the capillary network and the capillaries unite to form small veins which, on receiving others, gradually increase in size. But in certain situations the arrangement is different. In erectile tissue, the arterioles open, without the medium of capillaries, into large cavernous spaces bounded by fibrous and plain muscular tissues and lined by endothelium: the veins lead out of these spaces, so that there are no true capillaries, except such as are distributed to the walls of the spaces. In the sympathetic ganglia, the capillaries open abruptly into large sinus-like venules. And in the liver and a few other organs, as will presently be explained, the connexion between afferent and efferent vessels is effected, not by true capillaries, but by sinus-like spaces between the tissue-elements, the 'sinusoids' of Minot.

In transparent parts of animals the blood may be seen flowing through the capillary network from the arteries into the veins. The current is very rapid in the small arteries, somewhat less rapid in the veins, slowest in the capillaries. The flow in any vessel is fastest in the centre, slowest nearest the wall. In this region the leucocytes are carried along and they may be observed—especially where there is commencing inflammation of the part, as in the mesentery in consequence of exposure—to adhere to the inner surface of the blood-vessel, and here and there to pass through the coats of the small vessels and appear as *migratory cells* in the surrounding connective tissue. The blood-platelets are also seen in the region nearest to the wall, and if the vessel is injured or the part is inflamed, tend to adhere to the damaged part and to one another.

Contractility of capillaries.—This has been ascribed by some authors to certain cells which are seen here and there lying against the vessel-wall. These Rouget cells—so named after their discoverer—have been alleged to contain fibrils like those of plain muscle-cells (Bensley and Vimtrup), but this has been denied (Benninghoff; Michels). A cytological similarity between Rouget cells and fibroblasts has been noted: both store vital dyes in the same manner: myofibrils are lacking in the so-called Rouget cells, which, after appropriate irritation, may behave as histiocytes. Florey and Carleton found that the capillary would contract independently of the Rouget cells on mechanical stimulation. They consider these cells to be of connective-tissue nature. Capillaries are abundantly supplied with nerves which are in close contact with the endothelium. These amyelinate fibres often leave a given capillary and pass on to an adjacent one. The capillary nerves end as fine twigs upon (or in) the endothelial cells.

The intrinsic contractility of capillaries has, however, recently been questioned. Thus E. R. and E. L. Clark have inserted mica slips on one or both surfaces of the rabbit's ear. The space so formed is rapidly invaded by newly formed capillaries derived from pre-existing vessels and such preparations can be observed even with the oil immersion objective. It was found that *spontaneous* contraction of the capillaries was very slight—if indeed it occurred at all. These observations fit in with those of B. W. Zweifach and C. S. Kossmann, who examined the vessels in the ear, mesentery and intestinal wall of living mice. These authors describe two types of

capillary vessel: (a) non-muscular or true capillaries, and (b) muscular capillaries with an investment of muscle fibres. Changes in calibre in the former are ascribed to alteration in the size of the arterioles and muscular

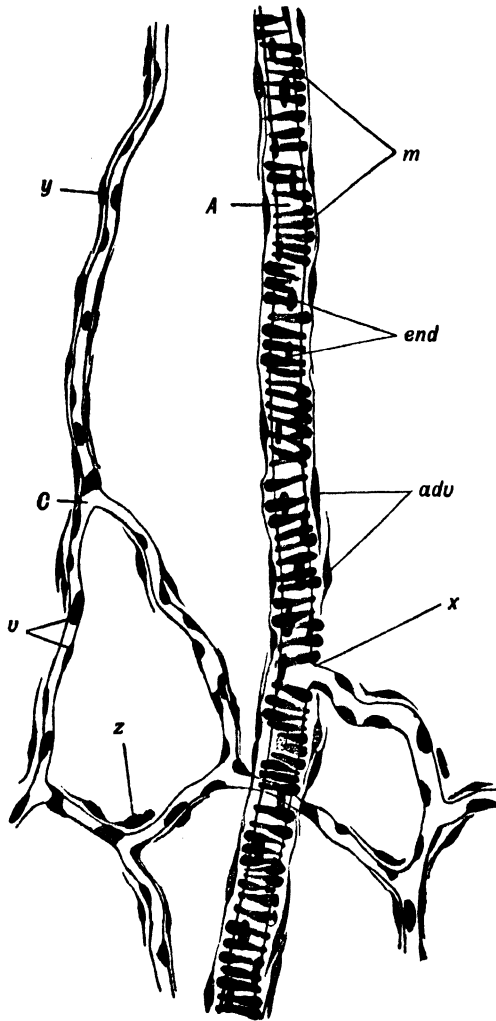


FIG. 272.—SMALL ARTERY, *A*, AND CAPILLARIES, *C*, FROM THE MESENTERY OF A RABBIT; *m*, MUSCLE CELLS IN THE MEDIA; *adv*, ADVENTITIA; *x*, ORIGIN OF A CAPILLARY FROM THE ARTERY; *y*, PERICYTE; *z*, PERIVASCULAR (ADVENTITIAL) HISTIOCYTE; *end*, *v*, ENDOTHELIAL NUCLEI. (Maximow.) $\times 187$.

(From Maximow & Bloom, *Text Book of Histology*. W. B. Saunders & Co., U.S.A.)

capillaries. In brief, Zweifach and Kossmann, like E. R. and E. L. Clark, hold that the capillaries are elastic but not actively contractile under physiological conditions. But localised contraction may occur if the endothelial cells are mechanically stimulated by pricking with a fine glass needle as pointed out above.

Amphibian capillary vessels, however, seem to be intrinsically contractile (E. R. and E. L. Clark), though this is not due to the adventitial (Rouget) cells.

DEVELOPMENT OF BLOOD-VESSELS.

The heart and blood-vessels show themselves very early. They are always developed in connective tissue or in the mesenchyme which precedes it, the first vessels being formed in the vascular area which surrounds the early embryo. Their development may be studied in the embryo chick or mammal, in the omentum of the new-born rabbit, and in the serous membranes and subcutaneous connective tissue of foetal animals. The cells which are to form the vessels (*vaso-formative cells* or *angioblasts*) branch and unite with one another to constitute a syncytium; cavities appear in this and extend into the branches. In the meantime the nuclei multiply and become distributed along the branches, cell-areas being at a later stage marked out

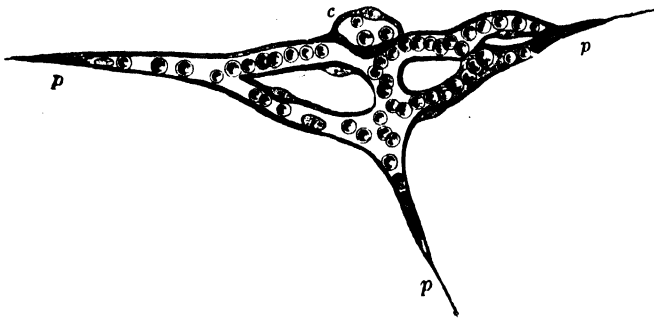


FIG. 273.—ISOLATED CAPILLARY NETWORK FORMED BY THE JUNCTION OF A HOLLOWED-OUT SYNCYTIUM, CONTAINING RED BLOOD-CORPUSCLES IN A CLEAR FLUID. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

c, a cavity which does not yet communicate with the network; p, p, p, pointed processes, extending in different directions for union with neighbouring capillaries.

around the nuclei. In this way vessels—in which blood-cells may also become developed (see pp. 47 to 57)—are produced. These presently connect with previously formed vessels, which extend themselves by sending out sprouts, at first solid, and afterwards hollowed out. Even the larger blood-vessels and the heart itself appear to be developed in the same way as the capillaries, in so far that the endothelium is first formed, the muscular and other tissues being subsequently added.

SINUSOIDS.

These are sinus-like blood-spaces between the cells of certain tissues (Sedgwick Minot). They may when fully developed bear a superficial resemblance to blood-capillaries, but differ essentially from these in their mode of development, as well as in their relationship to the connective tissue and cells of the organs in which they occur. For, whereas capillary blood-vessels are developed in embryonic connective tissue and are always accompanied by areolar tissue, sinusoids make their appearance independ-

ently in the form of large blood-spaces, connected usually with the venous system. Into these spaces, the walls of which are formed of only a single

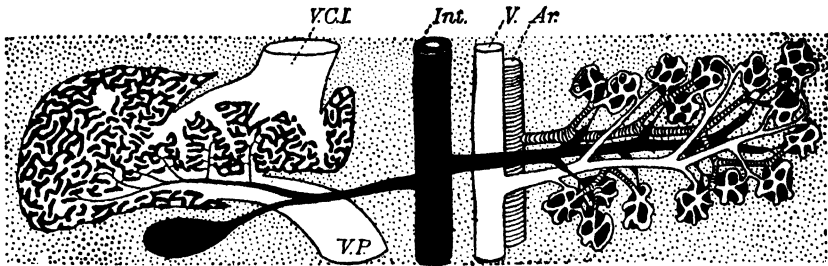


FIG. 274.—DIAGRAM TO ILLUSTRATE THE DEVELOPMENT OF BLOOD-CAPILLARIES (RIGHT SIDE) AND SINUSOIDS (LEFT SIDE) RESPECTIVELY. (F. T. Lewis.)

Int., intestinal endoderm with outgrowth on the left to form the liver and gall-bladder, and on the right to form the pancreas. *V.C.I.*, vena cava inferior; *V.P.*, vena porta; *V.*, vein, and *Ar.*, artery supplying pancreas. It is seen that the sinusoids or apparent capillaries of the liver are formed by the breaking up of a large blood-space into channels by the growth into it of cell-columns derived from the hepatic outgrowth of the endoderm.

layer of endothelial cells, the tissue-elements of the developing organ (Wolffian body, liver, suprarenals, etc.) grow, invaginating the thin wall and forming cell-trabeculae within the sinus (fig. 274), so that the cells of the

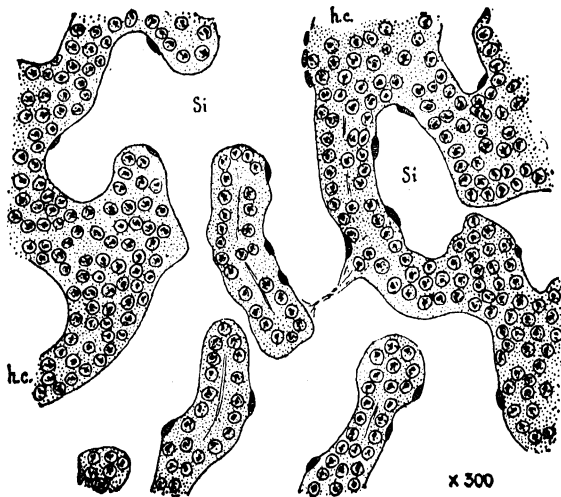


FIG. 275.—DEVELOPING LIVER OF CHICK, TO SHOW HOW THE HEPATIC TRABECULÆ ENCROACH ON THE LUMINA OF THE SINUS-LIKE VEINS AND BREAK THEM UP ULTIMATELY INTO THE CAPILLARY-LIKE CHANNELS CALLED SINUSOIDS. (Sedgwick Minot.)

h.c., hepatic trabeculae; *Si*, sinusoids.

organ are brought directly into contact with the invaginated endothelium, and are separated only by this from the blood contained within the sinus. But the connexion may be yet closer than this, for, as happens in the liver,

the invaginated endothelium may largely disappear, so that the blood within the sinus is in actual contact with the cells of the organ, flowing

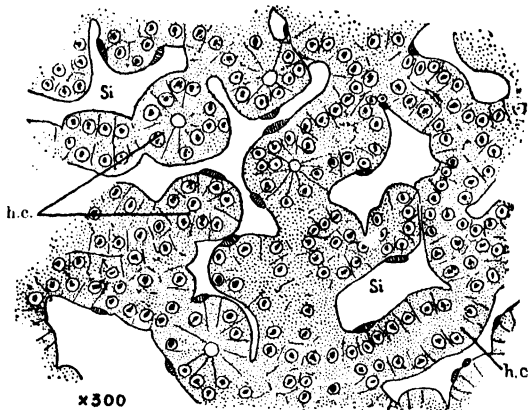


FIG. 276.—LIVER OF EMBRYO CHICK OF ELEVEN DAYS. (Sedgwick Minot.)
h.c., hepatic trabeculae; Si, sinusoids.

in the irregular interstices between them (figs. 275, 276). As development proceeds these interstices come to resemble blood-capillaries in general arrangement (fig. 277). Points of difference between the two types of vessel

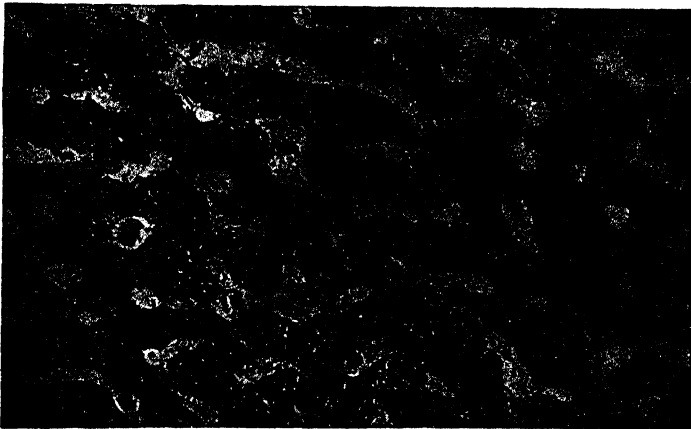


FIG. 277.—SECTION OF DOG'S LIVER, SHOWING THE SINUSOID NATURE OF THE BLOOD-CHANNELS BETWEEN THE LIVER-CELLS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.

It will be observed that in most places the blood-sinuses are directly bounded by the liver-cells, the endothelium being deficient, except for a few scattered cells—the cells of Kupffer.

are: (i) the incomplete endothelial lining of the sinusoid; (ii) its finer connective tissue investment, reticular rather than collagenous.

LYMPHATIC SYSTEM.

To the lymphatic system belong not only the *lymph-vessels* and *lymph-glands*, but also the *serous membranes*.

The larger lymph-vessels somewhat resemble the veins in structure (fig. 278), except that their coats are much thinner and the valves much

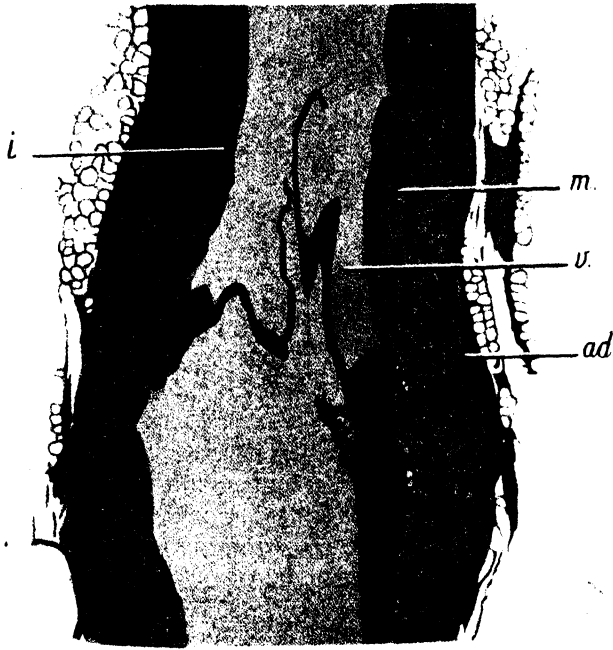


FIG. 278.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF HUMAN THORACIC DUCT. (After P. Bouin.) $\times 80$.

(By permission of Librairie Félix Alcan, Paris.)

v, two opposed flap-like valves; *m*, media containing some smooth muscle fibres cut transversally; *i*, intima; *ad*, adventitia.

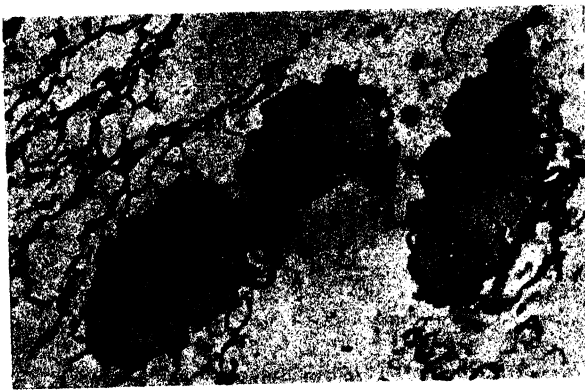
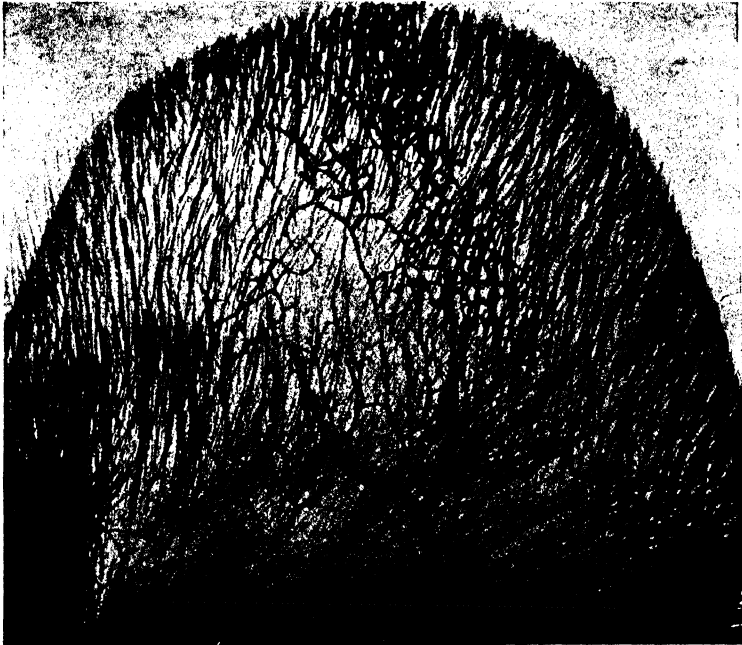


FIG. 279.—SECTION OF SMALL LYMPH-VESSELS IN LOOSE AREOLAR TISSUE. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 270$.

The vessels are filled with coagulated lymph; they also contain lymphocytes.

more numerous. In smaller lymphatics, which are very thin (fig. 279), the wall is formed, first, by a lining of endothelium-cells, the lymphatic endo-

thelium, which are elongated in the direction of the axis of the vessel ; and, secondly, by a layer of circularly and obliquely disposed muscular fibres. Numerous valves generally characterise lymphatic vessels, and as, like the veins, their walls are bulged out beyond the valves, the vessels usually have a moniliform appearance. A typical lymphatic network is shown in fig. 280. In the smallest vessels (the so-called *lymph-capillaries*, which are, however, considerably larger than the blood-capillaries) there is nothing but endothelium remaining ; the cells of this are frequently not more elongated in



From the *Journal of Pathology and Bacteriology*, Volume XLV, 1937, facing page 162.

FIG. 280.—NORMAL EAR OF MOUSE INJECTED WITH HYDROKOLLAG.
(After Florey and Pullinger.) $\times 8$.

The injection has penetrated the lymphatics in the centre of the ear. The characteristic varicosities are clearly shown.

one direction than in another ; they always have a characteristic wavy outline.

The lymphatics receive numerous nerve-fibres, which are amyelinate, and end in a ramification of the finest fibrils distributed to the coats of the vessels (fig. 281).

The lymphatics of the mesentery contract rhythmically in the rat and guinea-pig, although the amount of plain muscle in their wall is not large. In most animals the lymphatics do not exhibit rhythmic contractility, although they sometimes react to stimuli applied either directly or through nerves such as the sympathetic.

Lymphatics begin either as *plexuses*: this is the case in serous membranes and aponeuroses; or as *lacunar spaces*, as is the case with many in the

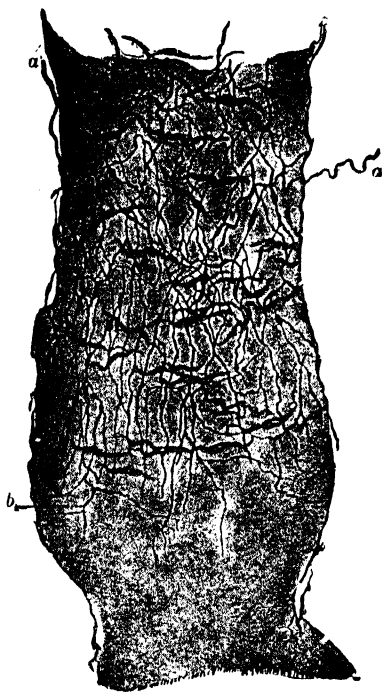


FIG. 281.—NERVES OF A LYMPHATIC VESSEL, SHOWN BY METHYLENE BLUE.
(Dogiel.)

a, a, anyelinate fibres passing to the vessel; *b*, part of their terminal ramification.

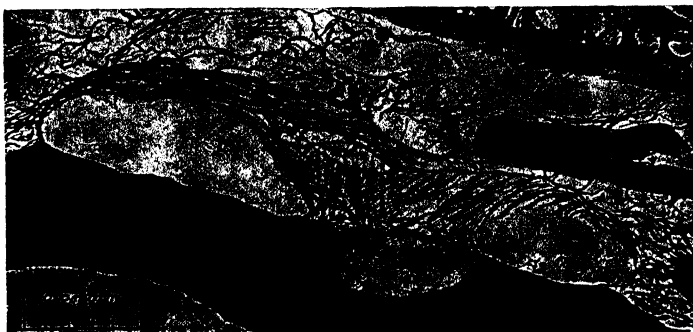


FIG. 282.—LYMPHATIC IN SECTION OF OEDEMATOUS EAR (MOUSE).
(After Florey and Pullinger.)

Silver impregnation, showing intimate relationship between vessel wall and reticular and collagen fibres.

viscera, and with all the lymphatics of Amphibia. They frequently accompany the blood-vessels of a part: the smaller arteries and veins being

often entirely surrounded by lymph-vessels. The serous cavities may be regarded as large lymph-lacunæ.

In order to show the structure of lymph-vessels, it is usual to stain a tissue with silver nitrate. For exhibiting their distribution they may generally be injected by sticking the nozzle of a fine injection cannula into any organ

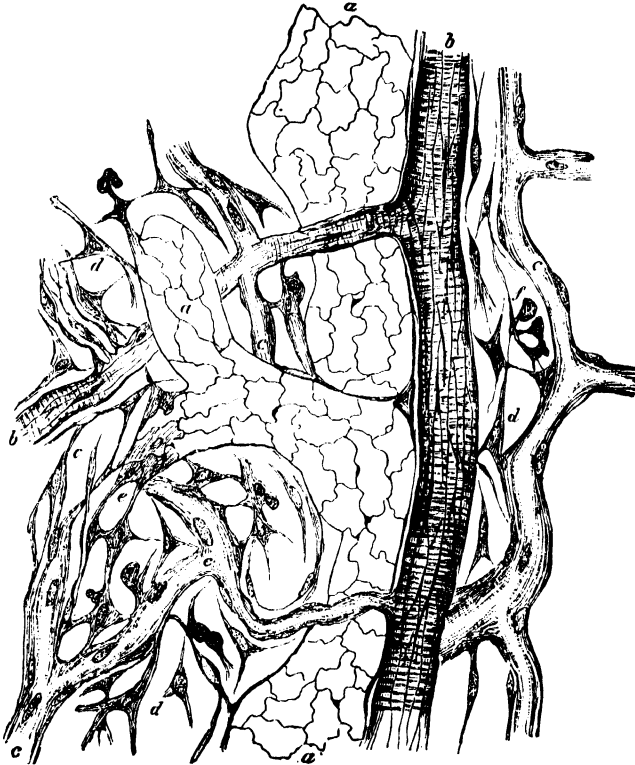


FIG. 283.—SILVER NITRATE PREPARATION FROM RABBIT'S OMENTUM. (Klein.)

a, lymph-vessel; *b*, *b*, small arteries; *c*, capillary vessels; those on the right passing into a small vein; *d*, connective-tissue cells—which, in this instance, have been stained by the silver treatment. They are seen (*c*) to be continuous with the cells of the lymphatic rootlets, and also to be attached to the walls of the capillaries.

which contains them, and forcing coloured fluid under gentle pressure into the interstices of the connective tissue.

In silvered preparations the lymphatics always appear in the form of clear channels in the stained ground-substance of the connective tissue and their walls are in close connexion with the cells and cell-spaces of that tissue. But no open communication is observable between the commencing lymph-vessels and the interstices of the connective tissue. Lymphatics are intimately connected by collagen and reticular fibres to the tissues surrounding them, as shown by B. D. Pullinger and H. W. Florey (1935). The dilatation of lymphatics in œdematous or inflamed tissues would thus seem to be

passive and due largely to the stretch of the surrounding connective tissue fibres (see fig. 282).

DEVELOPMENT OF LYMPH-VESSELS.

The investigations of Ranvier, confirmed and extended by Sabin, F. T. Lewis, and others, have shown that the lymphatics grow at certain places from the venous system, and gradually spread from these spots to all parts of the embryo. In man this connexion with the venous system persists only at two places, viz., the opening of the thoracic duct and that of the right lymphatic duct into the great veins at the root of the neck. The lymphatic system is now known to be a closed one.

SEROUS MEMBRANES.

The **serous membranes**, which may be studied in connexion with the lymphatic system, are delicate membranes of connective tissue which line

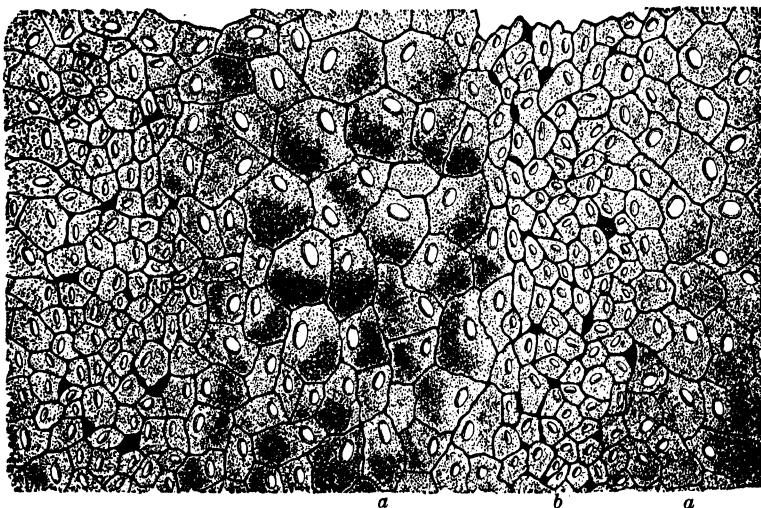


FIG. 284.—SEROUS ENDOTHELIUM FROM PERITONEAL SURFACE OF DIAPHRAGM.
SILVER NITRATE PREPARATION. (Klein.)
a, larger; b, smaller cells.

the internal cavities of the body, and are reflected over many of the thoracic and abdominal viscera; in passing to these they form folds, such as the mesentery, within which blood-vessels, lymphatics, and nerves are conducted to the viscera.

The inner surface of a serous membrane is lined by a continuous layer of *pavement epithelium*, or *endothelium* (fig. 284), which is very distinct in silver nitrate preparations.

The endothelium of a serous membrane rests upon a homogeneous basement-membrane, which is especially well marked in the serous membranes

of man. The remainder of the thickness of the membrane is composed of connective tissue, with a network of fine elastic fibres near the inner surface (see fig. 387).

DEVELOPMENT OF SEROUS MEMBRANES.

The serous cavities are originally formed in the embryo as a cleft in the mesoderm (pleuro-peritoneal split, *cœlom*) which becomes lined with endothelium and, later, separates into peritoneum, pleura, and pericardium. Outside the endothelium the *cœlomic* wall is eventually differentiated into the other tissues of the serous membrane.

LESSON XXII.

LYMPH-GLANDS, SPLEEN, TONSILS, THYMUS.

1. EXAMINE sections of a lymph-gland which has been fixed (preferably) in Susa or 5 per cent. formol and embedded in paraffin. Sections may be stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin, or with hæmatoxylin and Van Gieson. Notice (1) the fibrous and muscular capsule, with trabeculæ extending inwards from it through the cortex and anastomosing with one another in the medulla, (2) the dense lymphoid tissue forming spheroidal masses in the cortex (cortical nodules) and rounded cords in the medulla. Notice also the clearer channel or lymph-sinus which everywhere intervenes between the fibrous tissue and the lymphoid tissue. Observe the fine fibres and branched cells which bridge across the channel.

Make a general sketch, under a low power, of a portion of the cortex together with the adjoining part of the medulla, and, under a high power, drawings of small portions of cortex and medulla.

The reticular tissue of the lymph-glands has already been studied (p. 104).

2. Examine sections of a hæmal lymph-gland. These may be found in the neck of the sheep or ox, in the neighbourhood of the large blood-vessels. Prepare as in § 1.

3. Examine sections of spleen fixed in Susa or 5 per cent. formol and stained with Turnbull's Jenner stain (see Appendix) or with iron-hæmatoxylin. Notice the trabeculæ extending into the substance of the organ from the capsule. Notice also that the glandular substance is of two kinds: (1) lymphoid tissue accumulated around the small arteries and here and there massed to form lymphoid nodules—the Malpighian corpuscles—and (2) the pulp—consisting of a reticulum of fibrils and branching cells: this tissue contains blood in its interstices. The reticulum is better seen if the blood has been washed out of the organ by perfusion with Ringer's solution through the splenic artery.

Sketch part of a section under a low power and a small portion of the pulp under a high power.

4. Examine sections of lymph-gland and spleen that have been stained by Foot's method which specifically stains the reticular and collagen fibres. The nuclei may be usefully counterstained with 1 per cent. aqueous neutral red.

5. In sections of tonsil prepared similarly to those of lymph-gland, notice the large amount of lymphoid tissue, partly collected into nodules. Observe also that the stratified epithelium which covers the mucous membrane is infiltrated with lymphocytes. The tonsil is beset with pit-like recesses, with mucus-secreting glands opening into the pits.

6. Examine sections of ileum fixed and stained as in § 1. Note the characteristic Peyer's patches.

7. Examine sections of the thymus of an infant or foetus. Fix and stain as for lymph-glands. Notice that the masses of lymphocyte-like cells which mainly form the lobules of the gland are separated by septa of connective tissue, and that the lobules show a distinction into two parts, cortex and medulla. There are no lymph-paths within the lobules. Observe the differences of structure of the cortex and medulla, and especially notice the concentric corpuscles in the medulla. In

the adult the same structures can be seen, but there is a considerable development of adipose tissue in the connective tissue of the organ.

Make a sketch of one of the lobules under a low power and of a small part of the medulla under a high power, including one or two concentric corpuscles.

LYMPH-GLANDS.

A lymph-gland is composed of lymphoid tissue, arranged as **cortex** and **medulla**. A framework of reticular and collagen fibres encloses the lymphoid tissue, but is everywhere separated from it by a sinus-like channel, bridged across by cells and fibres, known as the **lymph-channel** or lymph-sinus (*l.s.*). The framework consists of a **capsule** (fig. 285, *c*), and of **trabeculae** (*tr.*) which

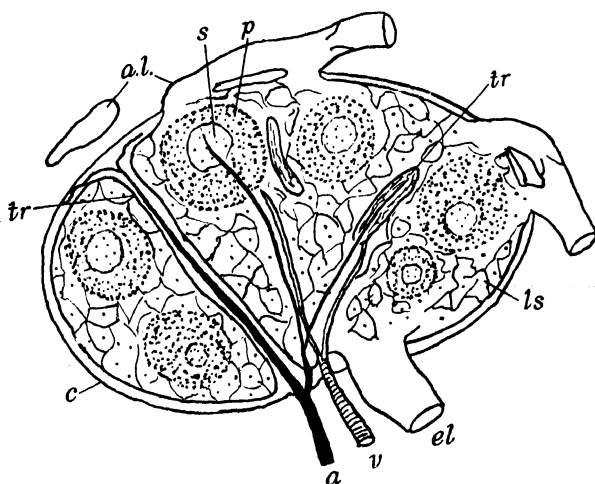


FIG. 285.—DIAGRAM OF A SECTION OF LYMPH-GLAND. (H.M.C.)

a, afferent artery ; *v*, efferent vein ; *a.l.*, afferent, and *e.l.*, efferent lymphatics ; *p*, primary lymphoid centres of cortical substance ; *s*, secondary centres ; *l.s.*, lymph-sinus ; *c*, capsule sending trabeculae, *tr.*, into the substance of the gland.

pass at intervals inwards from the capsule, and after traversing the cortex of the gland, divide and reunite with one another to form a network in the medulla. At one part of the gland there is usually a depression, the **hilus** ; at the bottom of this the medulla comes to the surface and its trabeculae contain plain muscular tissue, in some animals in considerable amount.

The proper glandular substance is composed of a fine reticulum with the meshes occupied by lymphocytes in various stages of formation. It occupies all the interstices of the gland, forming comparatively large rounded masses in the cortex (**lymphoid nodules** or centres, *p* and *s*), which may be two or three deep, and smaller reticulating cord-like masses in the medulla.

The lymph-channel is bridged across by fibres derived from the capsule and trabeculae, which pass to the lymphoid tissue and merge into its reticulum. The fibres are often largely concealed by branching cells (fig. 109), which were at one time thought to constitute the whole reticulum. In some

animals (*e.g.*, ox) these cells contain pigment, giving the medulla a dark colour. They are highly phagocytic and may contain disintegrating red cells, or reddish granules derived from the disintegration of red cells. They also take in foreign particles which may have been conveyed in the lymph to the gland. Thus it is common for the lymph-glands at the root of the lung to contain particles which have been inhaled in the form of dust.

The branched cells of the reticulum are continued over the trabeculæ, and at the entrance and exit of the lymphatics are continuous with the endothelium of these vessels. They represent therefore a lymphatic endo-

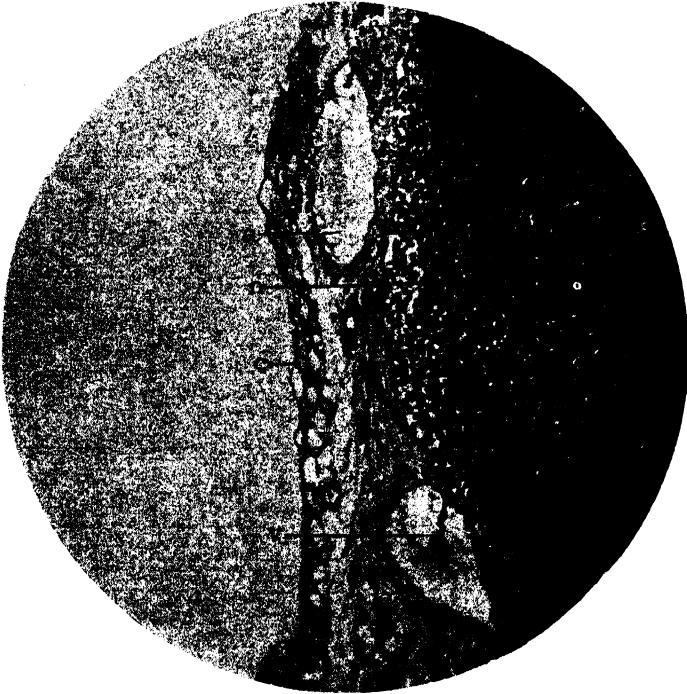


FIG. 286.—AFFERENT LYMPHATICS IN CAPSULE OF LYMPH-GLAND. (H.M.C.) $\times 200$.

c, capsule; a, afferent lymphatic; n, lymphoid nodule; v, valve in another afferent lymphatic.

thelium bounding the lymph-spaces, but like the corresponding endothelium of the small veins of the spleen they have become branched and form part of the supporting reticulum of the organ.

The phagocytic function of the branched cells of the reticulum is shared by certain large cells which are sometimes found lying loose in the lymph-channel and are probably derived from the branched cells. These cells resemble the large phagocytes found in the pulp of the spleen, and like those may ingest erythrocytes. This reticulum, with its enveloping branched cells, forms part of the reticulo-endothelial system, for a description of which see p. 57.

Giant-cells with lobed or multiple nuclei are also occasionally seen in lymph-glands.

Afferent lymph-vessels (fig. 285, *a.l.*) enter the lymph-sinuses of the cortex after ramifying in the capsule; the lymph is conveyed slowly along the channels of the cortical and medullary part towards the hilus. At the hilus it is gathered up by an efferent vessel or vessels (*e.l.*) taking origin in the lymph-sinuses of the medulla.

The outgoing lymphatics contain many more lymphocytes than those which enter the gland; histiocytes, derived from the reticulo-endothelium of the lymph sinuses, also pass out from the lymph-gland.

There is usually found, in the centre of each cortical lymphoid nodule, a less deeply staining circular zone. This has long been known as the



FIG. 287.—SECTION OF A LYMPH-GLAND FROM THE NECK OF AN EIGHT-YEAR-OLD CHILD. (v. Ebner.) $\times 13$.

c, capsule; *c.n.*, cortical nodules, some with germ-centres; *l.c.*, lymphoid cords of medulla (dark); *l.p.*, lymph-path (light); *s*, cortical sinus; *t*, trabeculae; *v*, vein; *l*, efferent lymph-vessels, accompanying and partly surrounding blood-vessels, *bl*.

germinal centre of Flemming, but it has recently been described as the *secondary nodule* for reasons explained below. Outside the latter is a layer in which the cells are more closely packed; this is the *primary nodule*; it is easily identified in sections by its deeper staining as compared with the central portion of the nodule.

The germinal centres of Flemming have—as the name would imply—been regarded for many years as the areas in which fresh lymphocytes are produced by karyokinesis. Some doubt, however, has arisen on this subject. Thus Hellmann, Ehrich and others have noted that, following injections of bacteria, a regression of the secondary (*i.e.*, germinal centres) is the first response;

a diffuse increase in the lymphoid tissue elsewhere in the gland occurs next, and this is accompanied by a parallel increase in the number of lymphocytes in the blood-stream. Finally, the secondary nodules regenerate, but this takes place only *after* the peak in the lymphocytosis has been attained. Hellmann indeed holds that the secondary centres are essentially reaction centres against toxic substances.

In some lymph-glands the fibrous trabeculæ are very slightly developed so that the gland seems in section to be a mass of lymphoid tissue, pervaded by lymph-channels and with rounded germ-centres scattered about, especially in the cortex (fig. 287). This condition obtains with many of the lymph-glands of man and is also found in some other mammals. In most, such as the cat, dog, and ox, the trabeculæ are well developed, and contain much muscular tissue; the lymph-channels are correspondingly well marked off.

Lymphoid formations are divided by Ehrich into three functionally distinct groups:—

1. The lymph glands, found particularly in the lymph stream, and which receive both afferent *and* efferent lymphatics.

2. The lymphatic tissue of various mucous membranes and of the alimentary tract in particular (*e.g.*, the Peyer's patches). Such lymphoid nodules are provided with efferent vessels only.

3. The lymphoid tissues such as the Malpighian corpuscles of the spleen which lie in the blood as opposed to the lymph-stream. The lymphoid nodules of the hæmal lymph-glands (see below) would also come into this group.

When (water-soluble) vitamin B is deficient in the diet lymphoid structures generally, and especially those of the alimentary canal, tend to become atrophied (Cramer). Atrophy also results from the application of X-rays, to which lymphocytes are particularly sensitive, their multiplication being arrested by it and its prolonged application producing actual destruction.

The leucocytes of the secondary nodules frequently show, in sections, peculiar darkly staining bodies—the *stainable bodies* of Flemming—the nature of which has not been determined.

An artery passes into each gland at the hilus; its branches are conveyed at first along the fibrous trabeculæ of the medulla, but soon become surrounded by lymphoid tissue, in which they break up into capillaries. The blood is returned by veins which are conducted along the fibrous trabeculæ, joining to form larger vessels which eventually emerge at the hilum.

Nerve-fibres pass to lymph-glands: they appear to be distributed chiefly as amyelinate fibres to the plain muscular tissue of the blood-vessels, capsule and trabeculæ.

HÆMAL LYMPH-GLANDS.

In many animals a certain number of lymph-glands are observable which have a red colour. They were first described by H. Gibbes in 1889 and are most easily found in the sheep. In man, these hæmal lymph-glands are found in the retro-peritoneal tissue and in the mediastinum thoracis. On section, what correspond to the lymph-channels in ordinary lymph-glands are

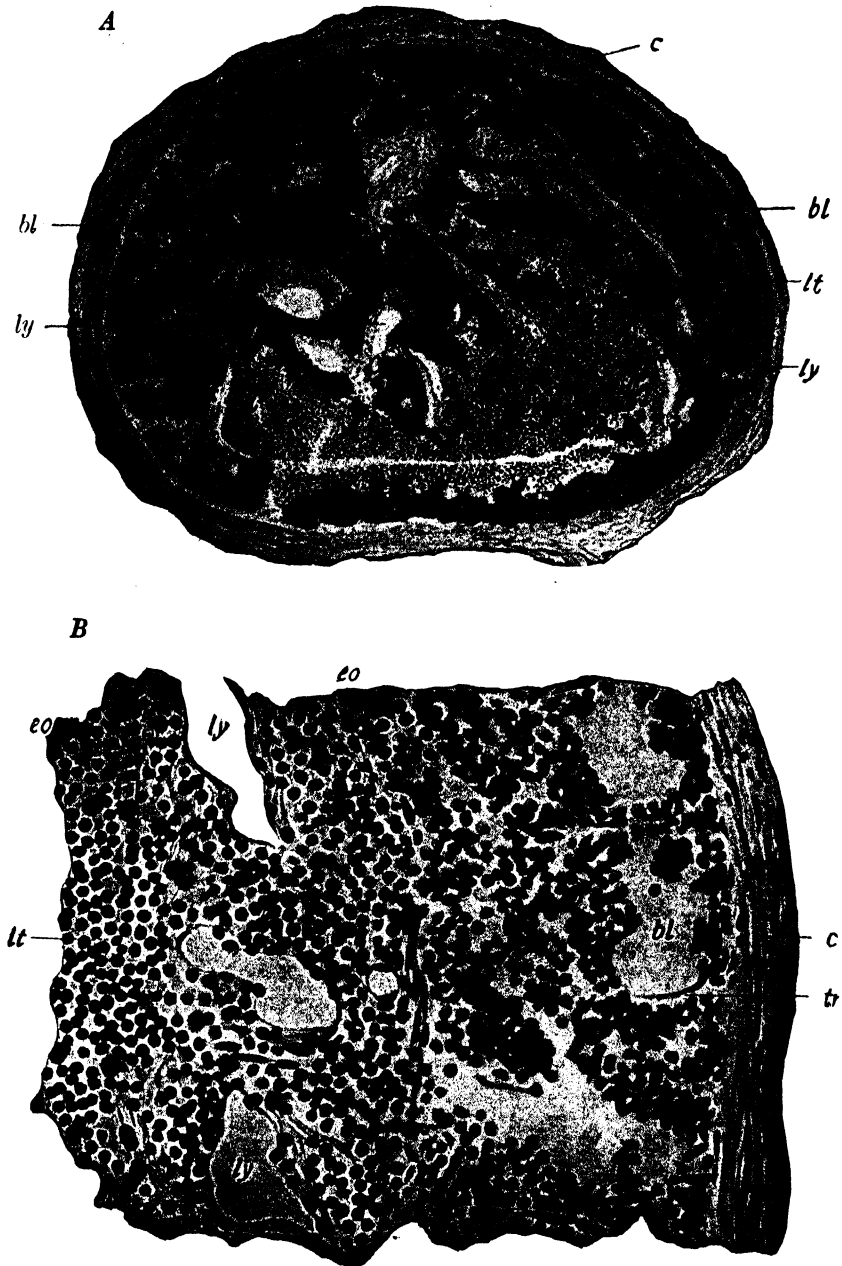


FIG. 288.—SECTIONS OF A HÆMAL LYMPH-GLAND (SHEEP).

A, magnified 50 diameters; *B*, magnified 350 diameters. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

c, capsule with plain muscle-fibres; *tr*, trabecule passing in from capsule; *bl*, sinuses containing blood; other red corpuscles are seen in the interstices of the lymphoid tissue, *lt*; *ly*, lymph-sinuses; *eo*, eosinophil leucocytes among the lymphocytes of the lymphoid tissue.

seen to be occupied by blood (fig. 288), while the remainder of the gland has the structure of an ordinary lymph-gland. The blood passes into the sinuses from arterial capillaries, which according to some accounts appear, as in the spleen, to open into the tissue interstices, from which at other parts small veins arise in like manner. Like the spleen these hæmal glands show numerous large phagocytes which contain red blood-corpuscles in various stages of transformation into pigment-granules.

THE SPLEEN.

The spleen in the past used to be called the largest of the so-called ductless glands. But it is best considered apart from them, being functionally

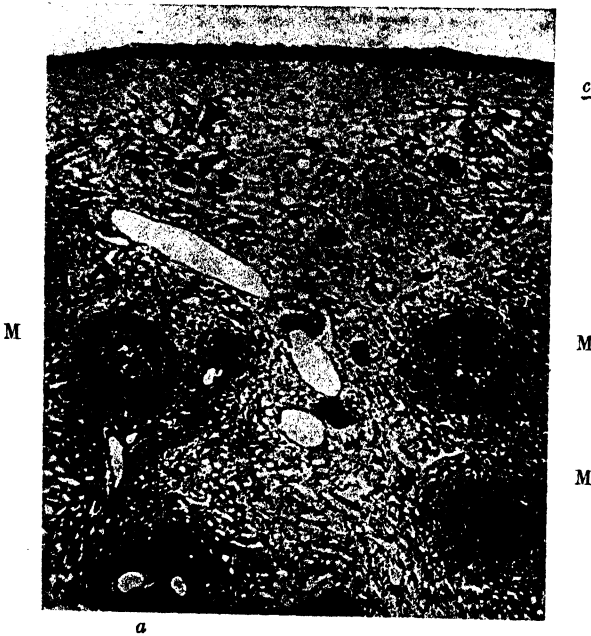


FIG. 289.—SECTION OF SPLEEN: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 50$. Photograph. The part illustrated includes capsule, *c*; pulp with venous sinuses and larger venous vessels; three Malpighian corpuscles (*M*), and two or three arteries (*a*), with their surrounding ellipsoids. (NOTE: In this and also in figs. 290 and 294 the blood has been removed from the vessels and pulp by the injection of saline through the splenic artery.)

connected with the blood, since white blood-cells are formed, and red cells destroyed within it. It also forms a reservoir for blood, being greatly dilatable and contractile.

Like the lymph-glands, the spleen is invested with a fibrous and muscular capsule (figs. 289, 290, *c*), which is, however, stronger and has far more plain muscular tissue than that of the lymph-glands. Outside the capsule is a covering derived from the peritoneum. The capsule sends bands or trabeculæ into the organ, and these join with a network of similar trabeculæ which pass

into the gland at the hilus along with the blood-vessels. In the interstices of the framework thus constituted lies a soft pulpy substance containing a large amount of blood, and therefore of a deep red colour when seen in the post-mortem room ; this dark substance is known as the **pulp of the spleen**. Dotted within this are here and there to be seen small round bodies, much whiter than the pulp in the fresh organ ; these are the **Malpighian corpuscles** (fig. 289, M). These are composed of lymphoid tissue gathered up into



FIG. 290.—SECTION OF SPLEEN : HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 80$. Photograph. c, capsule ; v, a venous sinus of the pulp ; tr, a trabecula cut obliquely ; M, a Malpighian corpuscle ; P, pulp.

globular or cylindrical masses of densely packed reticular fibres which envelop the smaller arteries ; the red pulp surrounding them, which forms the bulk of the organ, is composed of a less dense network of reticular tissue, partly covered by flattened and branched cells (figs. 291, 292) and containing in its meshes blood-corpuscles both red and white.

Three types of cell are found in the pulp : (i) Large and highly phagocytic cells or *histiocytes* ; (ii) reticulum cells which assist in forming the reticular network and also give rise to the cells of group (i) ; (iii) giant-cells with multiple nuclei. In addition the pulp contains all the corpuscular elements

of blood : the number of corpuscles both red and white being rather greater per cubic millimetre than in the blood of the general circulation. The histiocytes are frequently found to contain red blood-cells in various stages of transformation into pigment. They occur in the interstices of the pulp, in the venous sinuses, and in the emergent veins (fig. 292).

The giant-cells are most frequent in young animals. The reticular cells of the sponge-work appear to be of the same nature as the endothelium-cells of the terminal capillaries and veins of the pulp. They are connected by branches with one another and with the endothelium-cells of the vessels. The large amœboid phagocytes (histiocytes or macrophages) are said to be budded off from them. Both the reticular cells and the large phagocytes belong to the reticulo-endothelial system of Aschoff (p. 57).

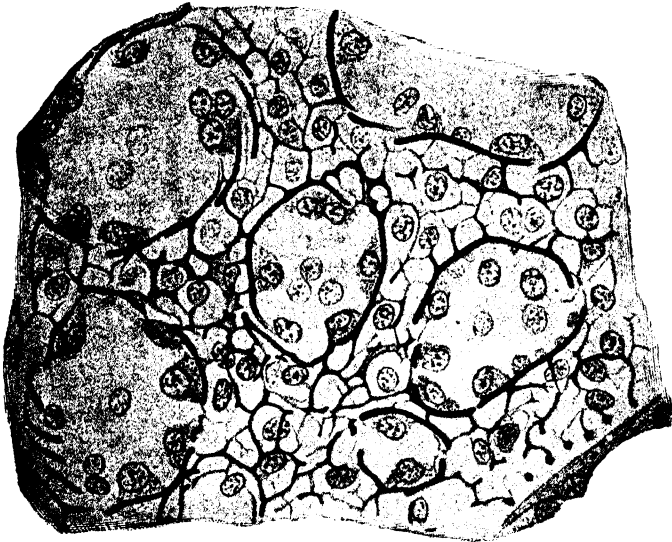


FIG. 291.—SMALL VEINS OF SPLEEN-PULP WITH RETICULAR TISSUE: HUMAN.
(Hoyer.) High power.

The venous sinuses, which are invested by encircling fibres, show gaps in their walls whereby they are often regarded as communicating with the interstices of the pulp. Notice the prominent endothelium-cells.

Nucleated red blood-corpuscles (erythroblasts) are found in the embryo, and occasionally after birth in the spleen-pulp. The blood of the splenic vein is at all times relatively rich in leucocytes, and also, it is said, in platelets.

The arteries, which are at first conducted from the hilum along the trabeculæ into the interior of the organ, presently leave the trabeculæ, and their external coat becomes gradually converted into a thick sheath of lymphoid tissue which invests them for the remainder of their course ; this sheath in places becomes swollen into the Malpighian corpuscles already mentioned. The smaller arteries distribute a few capillaries to the Malpighian corpuscles, and then break up into tufts, the *penicilli* of Ruysch. The arterioles are 'end-arteries,' i.e., the ramifications do not anastomose. The

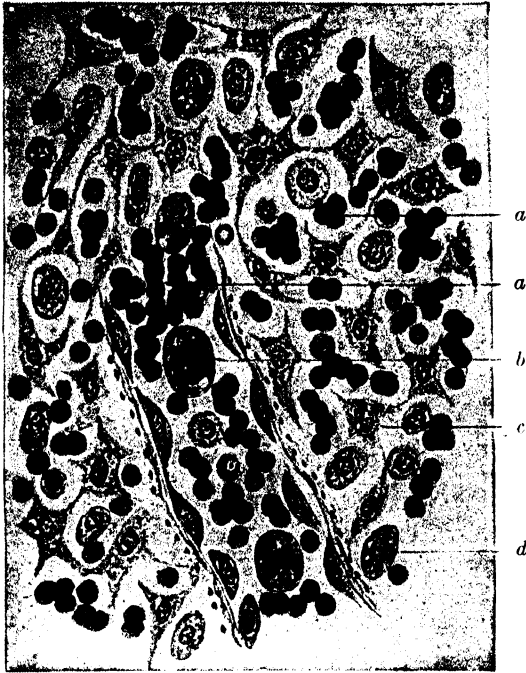


FIG. 292.—THIN SECTION OF SPLEEN-PULP OF CHILD, HIGHLY MAGNIFIED, SHOWING THE MODE OF ORIGIN OF A SMALL VEIN IN THE INTERSTICES OF THE PULP.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 400$.

a, blood in pulp ; *a'*, blood in vein ; *b*, phagocyte in vein ; *c*, branched cell of pulp ;
d, phagocytic splenic cell.

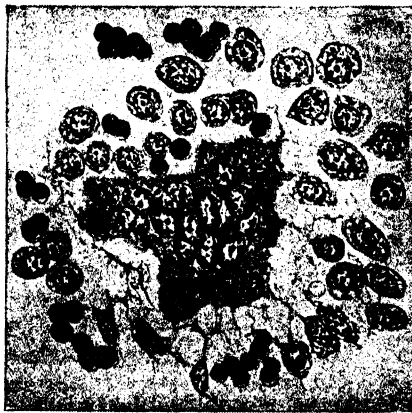


FIG. 293.—A MULTI-NUCLEATED GIANT-CELL FROM THE SPLEEN OF A KITTEN.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 400$.

arteries are accompanied by branches of the splenic nerve, each branch of artery and nerve being distributed to its own special zone of the organ, so that if during life only one of the branches of the nerve is stimulated, the corresponding zone of the organ undergoes contraction; this involves not merely the blood-vessels, but also the corresponding segment of the capsule (Tait and Cashin).

The arterioles forming the penicilli are remarkable in that they are surrounded, near their terminations in the pulp, by spindle-shaped investments of concentric lamellæ of reticular tissue with numerous lymphocytes in the meshes of the tissue. These investments are known as *ellipsoids*



FIG. 294.—SECTION OF SPLEEN: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 150$. Photograph.
a, an arteriole with its 'ellipsoid' investment of lymphoid tissue; *v*, venous spaces of the pulp;
tr, a trabecula.

(figs. 294, 295). They are usually regarded as valves, allowing the blood to percolate from the arterioles into the venous sinuses, but preventing any back flow. Thus it is impossible to inject the arteries of the organ from the splenic vein: the injecting material does not go beyond the pulp. It has been claimed, however (O. Solnitzky, 1937), that, since the sheath of the ellipsoid is composed solely of reticular films and phagocytic cells, it cannot be contractile. Against this view are Knisely's observations which are referred to on p. 247. Each ellipsoid is usually surrounded by a number of venous sinuses.

If Indian ink is injected into the blood of a living animal the carbon particles are held up in the phagocytes of the reticulo-endothelial system

(p. 57). This is conspicuously the case with the spleen, in which such particles are in the first case caught in the ellipsoids: from here they are taken into the pulp, eventually becoming engulfed by the large histiocytes of the reticular tissue.

There has been much discussion regarding splenic circulation. The usually adopted view is that the penicilli open direct into the pulp, the blood slowly percolating through this, in actual contact with the reticulo-endothelial cells and fibres. The blood is collected by the venous sinuses which, in fixed and stained specimens (fig. 297), appear to have incomplete walls.

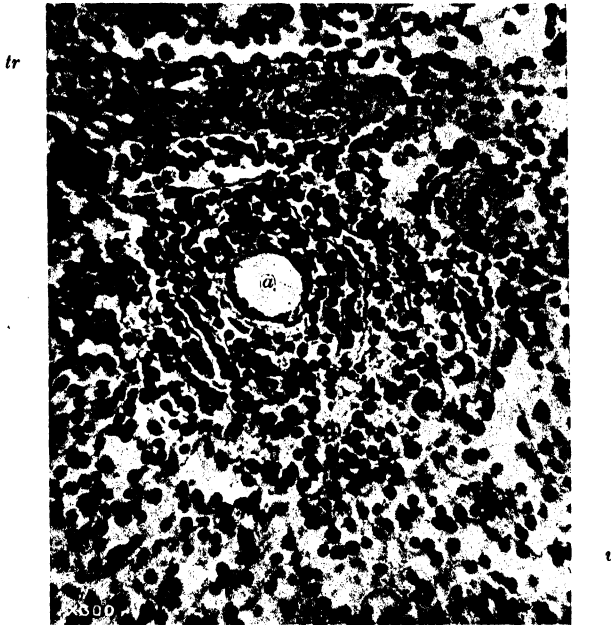


FIG. 295.—ARTERIOLE OF SPLEEN-PULP (MAN) WITH ITS ADVENTITIA REPLACED BY LYMPHOID TISSUE FORMING THE COMMENCEMENT OF AN 'ELLIPSOID.' (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

tr, a trabecula; *a*, section of arteriole; *v*, venous sinuses.

The sinuses in turn open into the larger branches of the splenic vein, these coursing down the trabeculae to the hilus. It will thus be seen that, according to this view, the circulation at one point of its course is open, *i.e.*, the vascular endothelium is incomplete and the blood corpuscles come into direct contact with the surrounding tissues.

Some recent observations (Knisely, 1936) are at variance with the above view. This author studied the circulation in the living spleens of various animals. The organ was exteriorised and a powerful light brought to its under surface by means of a bent quartz rod. Microscopic observation revealed the following: the venous sinuses could be clearly seen while each sinus possessed an afferent and efferent sphincter (fig. 296). Under observation the efferent sphincter was seen to contract and the sinus then began to

fill up with closely packed blood-corpuscles, plasma apparently passing through the sinus wall; also (occasionally) a red blood-corpuscle, although no openings in the wall could be detected. Next, the efferent sphincter opens and the blood passes into the vein draining the sinus. This is accompanied by a sudden opening of the afferent sphincter, fresh blood being thus re-admitted to the sinus. The blood now passes direct (*i.e.*, without storage in the sinus) into the vein. Then, after a varying time, the efferent sphincter closes and the cycle already described begins again.

A 'straight through' capillary system, by-passing the sinus (fig. 291), is

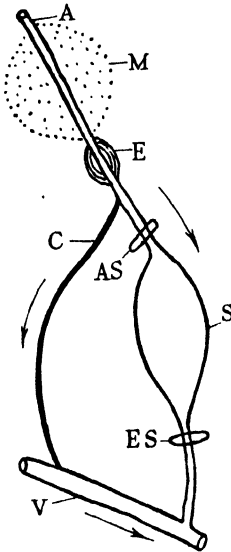


FIG. 296.—DIAGRAM OF SPLENIC CIRCULATION. (H. M. Carleton. After M. H. Knisely.)

A, artery; M, Malpighian corpuscle; E, ellipsoid; AS, afferent sphincter; S, venous sinus; ES, efferent sphincter; V, vein; C, 'straight through' capillary.

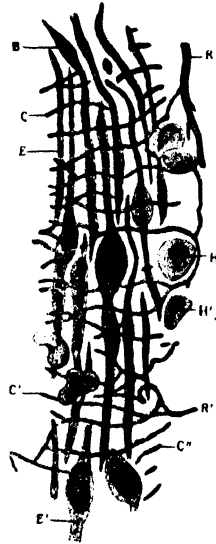


FIG. 297. — ENDOTHELIUM-CELLS OF VENOUS SINUSES OF SPLEEN. (J. Jolly.) $\times 1000$.

R, R', fibres of reticulum of pulp; C, C', C'', fibres of reticulum encircling a venous sinus; E, E', endothelial cells of sinus; B, a broadened portion of the endothelium-cell serving for attachment to the fibres of the reticulum; H, H', erythrocytes.

also described by Knisely. Its function would appear to maintain a blood-supply during the long storage phases of the sinuses.

Coincident with death the ellipsoids and also the sphincters of the sinuses would appear to contract. The blood corpuscles then pass in large numbers through the walls of both capillaries and sinuses into the pulp. The very congested state of the pulp, and also the appearance of discontinuity in the sinus wall, as seen in post-mortem material, fit in with Knisely's observations. See figs. 291, 297, in this connexion.

The splenic vein is very much larger than the corresponding artery. It is supplied by special amyelinate vasomotor nerves which join the left phrenic nerve in the mid-cervical region and accompany it to the diaphragm. This they perforate and deviating towards the coeliac ganglion pass to the splenic vein; entering the spleen with it, they are distributed to the branches of the vein. Stimulation of any one of these nerves causes prolonged localised contraction of the vein to which it is distributed and consequent engorgement with blood of that part of the spleen from which the vein emanates. Stimulation of all produces engorgement and dilatation of the whole organ.

The nerves of the spleen include not only efferent fibres to the blood-vessels, capsule and trabeculæ, mostly derived from the sympathetic, but also afferent fibres, stimulation of which causes, reflexly, alterations in its volume, as well as reflex contractions of the ventral abdominal musculature (Cleland and Tait). Nerve-endings have been described (Riegele) in the smooth muscle-cells of the trabeculæ, in the reticulum-cells of the pulp, and in the Malpighian corpuscles. The latter are often innervated by a single fine fibre.

The lymphatics of the spleen run partly in the trabeculæ and capsule, and partly in the lymphoid tissue ensheathing the arteries. They join to form larger vessels which emerge at the hilum. There are no lymphatics in the spleen-pulp itself.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SPLEEN.

The spleen first appears, at about the fifth week of foetal life, as a mass of mesenchyme cells attached to the mesenteric fold of the stomach. Within the mass, spaces containing blood appear and the trabecular framework is formed, continuous with the capsule externally. The reticulum of the pulp and the Malpighian bodies become differentiated later, but details regarding their formation are lacking.

THE TONSILS AND OTHER LYMPHOID STRUCTURES.

The tonsils are two lymphoid organs placed one on each side of the pharynx, between the pillars of the fauces. They are covered on their free surface with stratified epithelium; this surface is pitted with apertures which lead into recesses or crypts in the substance of the organ (fig. 298). These recesses are all lined by a prolongation of the stratified epithelium of the surface and into them open the ducts of numerous small mucous glands. The body of each tonsil is composed of lymphoid tissue, which, besides being diffused throughout the organ, is at intervals aggregated into nodules, in which the lymph-cells are more closely arranged than elsewhere. The epithelium which covers the tonsils is itself infiltrated with lymphocytes (fig. 299), many of which wander out on to the free surface, and become mingled with the saliva when they there form the so-called salivary corpuscles.

The lymphoid tissue of the tonsils has numerous blood-vessels, and also lymph-vessels.

The mucous membrane of the neighbouring part of the pharynx, that of the back of the tongue, and that of the upper part of the pharynx, near the

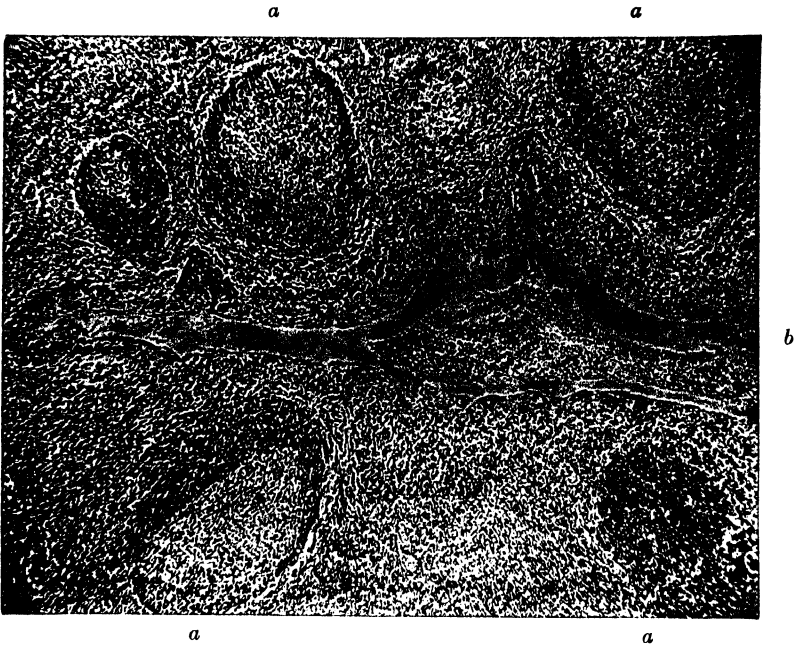


FIG. 298.—SECTION OF TONSIL: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 50$.
Photographed from a preparation by M. Heidenhain.

a, a, lymphoid nodules: *b*, a recess lined by stratified epithelium which is permeated by leucocytes.
Opposite *b*, a mass of leucocytes which has escaped into the cavity of the recess.

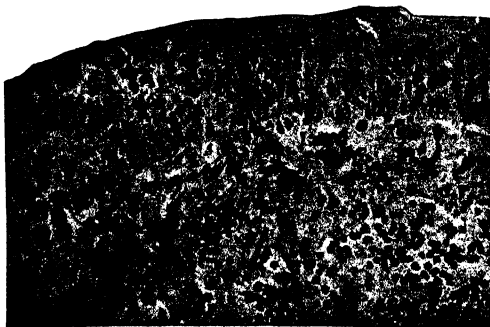


FIG. 299.—PART OF A SECTION OF RABBIT'S TONSIL, SHOWING INFILTRATION OF
THE EPITHELIUM BY LEUCOCYTES. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Photograph.

orifices of the Eustachian tubes and behind the posterior nares, show crypts and masses of lymphoid tissue (**post-nasal adenoids**) similar in structure to those of the tonsils.

Lymphoid tissue occurs in various other parts of the body in addition to

the lymph-glands and tonsils, although it may not, as in these structures, constitute the bulk of the organ. Thus it is found in many mucous membranes, such as those of the alimentary and the respiratory tracts, both in a diffuse form and also collected into nodular masses which are like the cortical nodules of a lymph-gland. In the intestine (fig. 450) such nodules constitute the so-called **solitary glands** and **Peyer's patches**. In the vermiform appendix the mucous membrane is thickly beset with similar nodules. The lymphatics of the mucous membrane form plexuses of sinus-like vessels which partly enclose the nodules. In the spleen, as we have seen, a large amount of lymphoid tissue is found ensheathing the smaller arteries; this is expanded in places into the nodular masses known as Malpighian corpuscles. Lymphoid tissue also occurs in considerable amount in the serous membranes, especially in young animals; in the adult it is here largely replaced by adipose tissue.

DEVELOPMENT OF LYMPHOID TISSUE.

Lymph-glands are developed in connexion with plexuses of lymph-vessels, an accumulation of reticular tissue and lymph-cells taking place, according to Klein, either external to and around the lymphatics (*perilymphatic formation*); or within

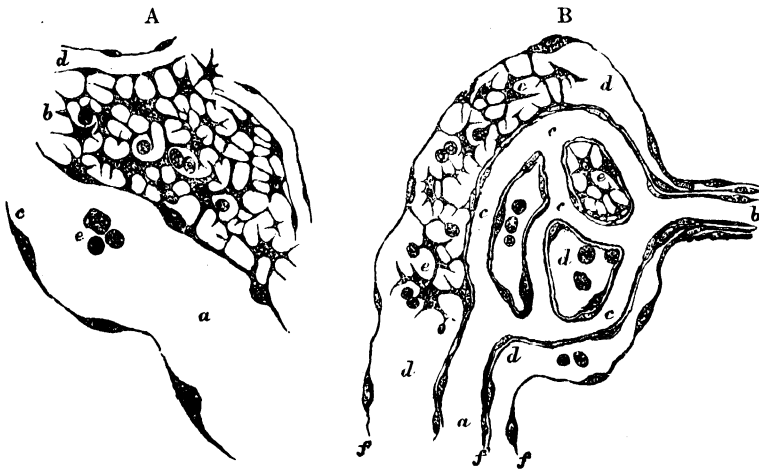


FIG. 300.—DEVELOPING LYMPHOID NODULES FROM THE GUINEA-PIG. (Klein.)

- A, perilymphatic nodule: *a*, lymphatic; *c*, its endothelium; *e*, lymph-corpuscles; *b*, accumulation of lymphoid tissue on one side of it; *d*, blood-capillaries within this.
 B, endolymphatic nodule consisting of an enlarged lymphatic vessel, *d*, within which is a capillary network, *c*, *c*, an artery, *b*, and a vein, *a*; *e*, lymphoid tissue within the lymphatic. In both cases the cells of the reticulum of the lymphoid tissue are joined to the lymphatic endothelium, *f*.

them, some of the lymphatics being dilated into a sinus, and the formation of lymphoid tissue occurring within the sinus (*endolymphatic formation*) (fig. 300, A and B). When the development of lymphoid tissue occurs outside the lymph-vessels this may form a considerable accumulation before the appearance of lymph-paths within the tissue. Blood-vessels are early developed amongst the lymphatic plexuses, and by these, according to Gulland, the first lymphocytes of the lymphoid tissue are brought to the gland.

The marginal sinus of a lymph-gland is produced by the fusion of a number of lymph-vessels which surround the commencing accumulation of lymphoid tissue, while in the situation of the future hilum other lymph-vessels grow into the glandular substance and form channels which subdivide it into cords and nodules (Kling). The branched cells of the lymph-path are derived from the lymphatic endothelium.

The axillary lymph-glands were found by Stiles to increase in number and size during lactation, diminishing again after lactation has ceased. In the developing tonsils Gulland occasionally found nests of epithelial cells detached from the surface epithelium, somewhat like those found permanently in the thymus.

THYMUS.

The thymus gland is an organ which in man is normally found in a fully developed condition only in the foetus and child. It is composed of a number



FIG. 301.—THYMUS OF DOG, SHOWING THE LOBULATED, DARKLY STAINED CORTIX AND THE LIGHTLY STAINED MEDULLA. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 40$.

of lobules (fig. 301) varying in size, partly separated from one another by septa of connective tissue, along which the blood-vessels pass to and from the lobules. Each lobule shows plainly, when examined with a low power, a distinction into an outer cortical and an inner medullary portion. The **cortex** of each lobule is imperfectly divided into lobules by the septa above mentioned. It is superficially similar in structure to the lymphoid tissue of the lymph-glands and tonsils, with which it also agrees in exhibiting numerous indications of mitotic cell-division, but without definite germ-centres. Besides these lymphocyte-like cells, the *thymocytes*, it contains peculiar granular cells, the nature of which is not clear. The **medulla** is more open in its texture with fewer corpuscles than the cortex. Its reticulum is formed of large, transparent, branched cells (fig. 302), massed together in places. Connective-tissue fibres are not wholly absent from it. Within the medulla,

but never in the cortex, are found peculiar concentrically laminated bodies—the *concentric corpuscles of Hassal* (figs. 303, 304). These are nests of

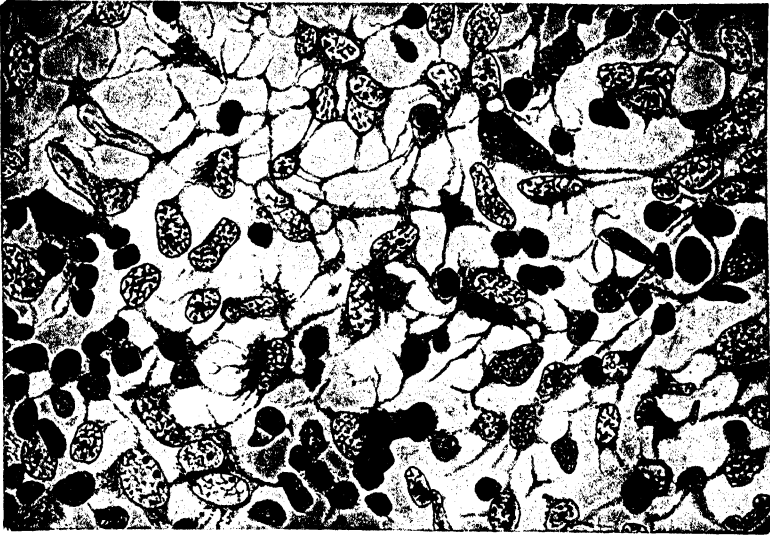


FIG. 302.—SECTION OF MEDULLA OF THYMUS OF HUMAN FŒTUS, SHOWING BRANCHED CELLS FORMING A RETICULUM WITH A FEW SMALL THYMUS CELLS IN ITS MESHES. (Hammar.)

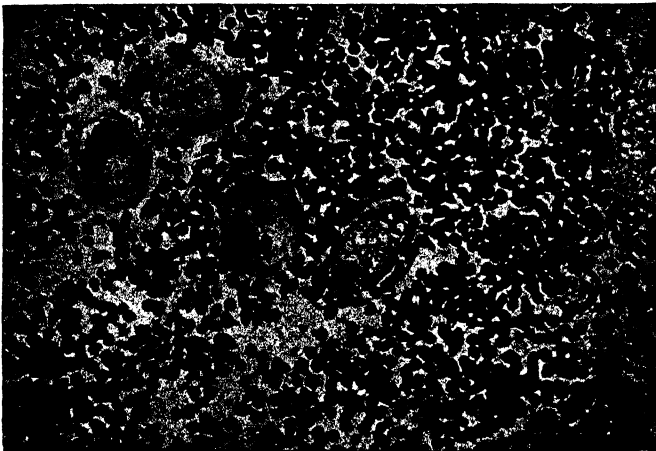


FIG. 303.—MEDULLA OF THYMUS OF A CHILD. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 300. Photograph.

The small darkly stained cells are thymocytes. The section includes two concentric corpuscles and some blood-vessels full of red blood-corpuscles.

flattened cells arranged concentrically around one or more central cells, the last having undergone a degenerative process. Sometimes the cor-

puscles are compound, two or three being grouped together and similarly enclosed by flattened cells.

Nucleated red blood-corpuscles (erythroblasts), similar to those seen in red marrow, have been described in the thymus. Occasionally cysts lined by ciliated epithelium are found (fig. 304, *c*). In some mammals isolated striated muscle-cells are seen in the medulla. Multi-nucleated giant-cells have also been described in it.

The lobules, and especially the cortex, are abundantly supplied with capillary blood-vessels. In man the arteries penetrate to the junction of cortex and medulla, and then give off most of their capillaries radiating outwardly into the cortical substance; others pass inwards to supply the medulla. Veins pass away both from the surface of the lobules and to a less extent

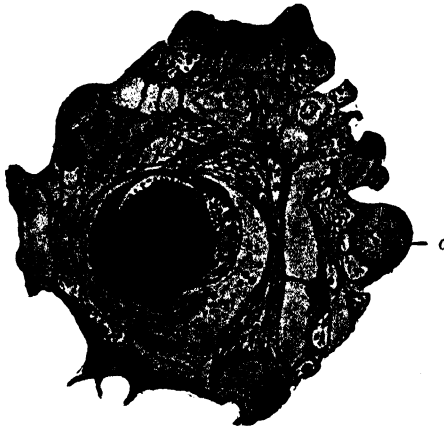


FIG. 304.—A CONCENTRIC CORPUSCLE OF THYMUS WITH PART OF THE ADJOINING RETICULUM. (Hammar.)
c, a small ciliated cyst.

directly from the medulla. The mode of distribution of the lymphatics has not been definitely ascertained; none are seen within the lobules. Nevertheless, large lymph-vessels, containing many lymphocytes, issue from the interstitial connective tissue of the organ, but how they commence is not known.

The medullary substance is continuous throughout the gland, adjacent lobules being interconnected by their medulla.

In the human subject the thymus gland undergoes after childhood a process of regression, its lobules becoming surrounded and concealed by a quantity of adipose and fibrous tissue which develops in the interstitial connective tissue of the gland. Eventually the glandular tissue atrophies, so that in advanced age very little remains.

The function of the thymus has yet to be clearly established. Dustin, however, has produced evidence which tends to show that the thymus may function as a reservoir or fixation-organ for nucleins.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE THYMUS.

The thymus first appears as cell-masses in the walls of the third and fourth branchial clefts. The thymus-rudiment is hence endodermal in origin. The outgrowths lose their connexion with the clefts and fuse in the mid-line to form a long tubular organ (fig. 305), which later becomes solid. Outgrowths occur at irregular intervals to form the lobules (fig. 306) : these outgrowths appear as accumulations of small, basophil cells.

The origin of the lymphocyte-like cells is debatable. In fish they appear to be developed from the endoderm-cells, and recent work suggests that this is also



FIG. 305.—DEVELOPING THYMUS, SHOWING THE ORGAN AS A BRANCHING EPITHELIAL TUBE. (Prenant, Bouin, and Mailard.)

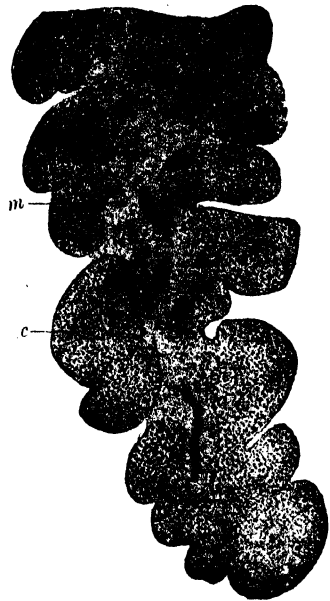


FIG. 306.—DEVELOPING THYMUS, SHOWING THE ORGAN AS A BRANCHING EPITHELIAL TUBE. (Prenant, Bouin, and Mailard.)

The lumen of the tube is obliterated; its cells are greatly thickened and the distinction of cortex (*c*) and medulla (*m*) is apparent

true in mammals (Deanesly-Parkes). Although Hammar and others have regarded the susceptibility of the small thymic cells to X-rays as proof of their lymphocytic origin, recent work by Deanesly-Parkes does not support that view. This author found the thymus far more sensitive to X-rays than lymph glands. Furthermore, she was able to follow, in X-ray degeneration of the thymus, all stages in the formation of Hassall's corpuscles and of the ciliated cysts from the blood-vessels and connective tissue of the organ. In fish the small thymus cells are unquestionably derived from the epithelial rudiments. The view that the latter form by degeneration the corpuscles of Hassall is therefore incorrect.

LESSON XXIII.

ENDOCRINE GLANDS.

ADRENAL GLANDS, THYROID, PARATHYROIDS, PITUITARY, AND PINEAL.

1. In a section of a fresh suprarenal capsule, placed in a strong solution (8 per cent.) of potassium bichromate, notice the deep brown coloration of the medulla (action of chrome salts on adrenaline). On the other hand, a section of fresh gland treated under certain conditions with silver nitrate solution exhibits a darkly stained cortex and an unstained medulla. This is due to the presence in large amount of Vitamin C (ascorbic acid) in the cells of the cortex.

After fixation with 2 per cent. potassium bichromate, followed by alcohol, thin sections may be stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin or by the iron-hæmatoxylin method. Notice the general arrangement and extent of the cortical and medullary parts of the organ. Make a general sketch under a low power. Afterwards sketch carefully under a high power a group of cells from each part of the organ.

2. Cramer's method. Suspend a thin slice of a fresh suprarenal in a wet gauze bag in a closed vessel containing 2 per cent. osmic acid solution, and keep for $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours at 37° C. Then transfer to 50 per cent. alcohol, and after a few hours pass through absolute alcohol and xylol into paraffin. Mount sections directly in dammar without further staining.

This method is valuable for showing the adrenaline granules in the medulla. The lipoids of the cortex are also stained by the osmic acid, but these can, if desired, be removed from sections by immersion for half an hour in crude turpentine. A mixture of potassium bichromate with osmic acid also stains the adrenaline granules, but the best results are obtained by the osmic vapour method.

3. Examine sections of the thyroid gland fixed with Susa or Zenker, stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin. Notice the vesicles lined with cubical epithelium and occupied by a 'colloid' substance. Sketch one or two vesicles. The sections may include a parathyroid. If they do not, special sections of parathyroid should be prepared.

4. Examine sections (sagittal) through the pituitary body (cat or monkey) fixed with Susa. Notice the (epithelial) anterior lobe separated by a cleft from the posterior lobe. The anterior part of the posterior lobe is also covered by an epithelial layer.

The three types of cell found in the anterior lobe are well shown after fixation in Zenker followed by staining with Mann's methyl blue-eosin (long method).

The preparation should include, along with the pituitary body, the adjacent part of the base of the brain, in order to show the stalk and the *pars tuberalis*.

5. Examine sections (sagittal) through the pineal gland of a new-born child or kitten. The gland should be obtained from a brain fixed in 5 per cent. formol. (The pia mater must not have been removed, since the pineal gland is liable to be detached with it.) The sections may be stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin.

THE ADRENAL GLANDS (SUPRARENAL CAPSULES).

The adrenal glands and the other organs enumerated belong to the class of bodies known as internally secreting or endocrine glands. The name

'suprarenal capsules' is a relic of the earlier days of anatomy and is due to the rapid autolysis of these organs as encountered at the average post-mortem. For under such conditions the contents of the glands present themselves as diffuent debris within the capsules. A transverse section of the human suprarenal gland shows it to be roughly triangular in shape



FIG. 307.—A VERTICAL SECTION OF THE SUPRARENAL BODY OF A FETUS, TWICE THE NATURAL SIZE, SHOWING THE DISTINCTION BETWEEN THE MEDULLARY AND CORTICAL SUBSTANCE. (Allen Thomson.)

v, issuing vein; r, summit of kidney

(fig. 307), lying closely applied against the kidney. In most other mammals the suprarenals are more or less cylindrical with rounded ends. A section through the fresh suprarenal (fig. 307) shows a **cortex** which is striated vertically to the surface, of a yellowish colour, and a **medulla** which is soft and highly vascular, or a dark brown or reddish colour. The whole organ is invested by a fibrous **capsule** (fig. 308, a), which sends septa inwards through the cortical substance, subdividing this for the

most part into groups of rather compressed cells (*zona fasciculata*, c). Immediately beneath the capsule, however, the groups are more rounded, and the cells tend to assume a columnar form (*zona glomerulosa*, b), while next to the medulla they have a reticular arrangement (*zona reticularis*, d). The cells of the *zona reticularis* are pigmented in some animals.

The cells which form the cortical substance are mostly polyhedral in form; each contains a clear round nucleus, and numerous yellowish lipid globules or granules, sometimes crystalline in appearance, in the cytoplasm.

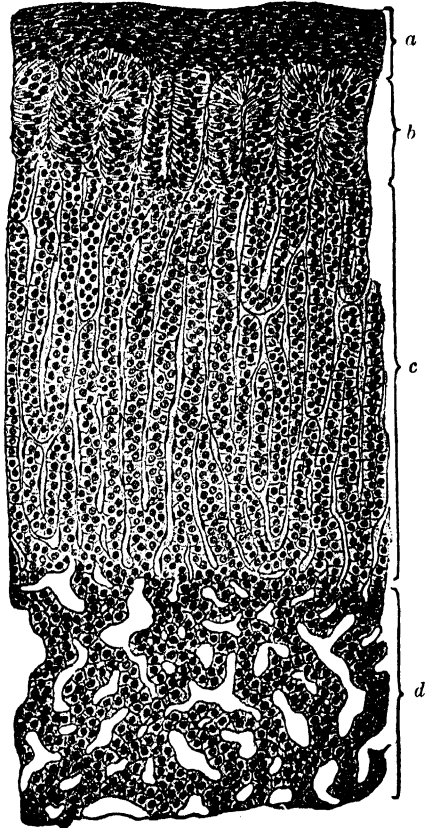


FIG. 308.—VERTICAL SECTION OF CORTEX OF SUPRARENAL OF DOG. (Böhm and v. Davidoff.) Magnified about 150 diameters.

a, capsule; b, *zona glomerulosa*; c, *zona fasciculata*; d, *zona reticularis*.

Neither arteries nor veins penetrate between the cells of the cortex ; but the blood-vessels run in the fibrous septa between the cell-columns, which they surround with a capillary network. In the zona reticularis the capillaries widen out and occupy sinuses continuous with those of the medulla (fig. 308, *d*). Lymphatics also run in the septa above mentioned and communicate with fine canaliculi between the cells of the cortex. Deposits of pigment granules may sometimes be seen in the innermost layer of the human zona reticularis.

The cells of the medulla (figs. 309, 310) are more irregularly disposed than those of the cortex. They are supported by a network of elastic fibres.



FIG. 309.—SECTION OF SUPRARENAL, SHOWING MARKED DISTINCTION BETWEEN CORTEX AND MEDULLA. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 40$. Photograph.

They lie in very close relation to the large capillary blood-spaces (sinusoids) which pervade the medulla, and they pass their secretion, adrenaline, directly into the blood. Their protoplasm is granular, the granules stain darkly with osmic vapour and give the reactions of adrenaline.

The cells of the medulla are characterised by being stained brown by chromic acid and its salts, provided the organ is fresh. This is known as the *chromaphil reaction*. A similar staining is found to occur in some of the cells of certain small glandular bodies, the *chromaphil bodies* or *paraganglia* (fig. 311) which occur irregularly at the back of the abdomen, being especially frequent near the lower end of the aorta. A certain number of such cells are also found in sympathetic ganglia. This chromaphil reaction depends on the presence of adrenaline in the cells where it occurs.

Stimulation of the sympathetic supply to the gland causes the adrenaline to be secreted into the blood, fresh adrenaline being formed in the cells of the medulla, especially in those near its centre. If the secretion is excessive the adrenaline may

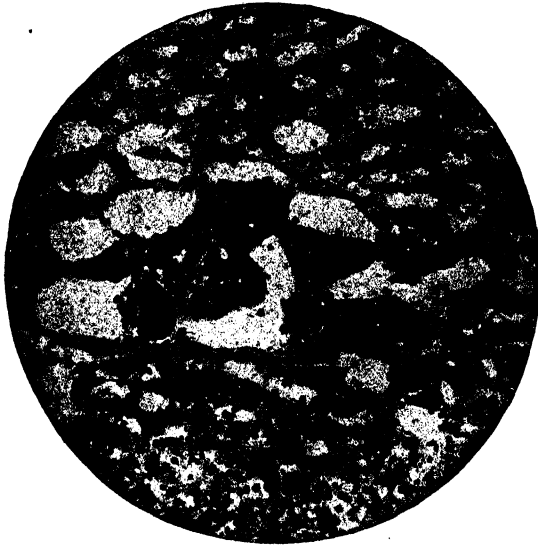


FIG. 310.—PART OF THE SAME SECTION AS THAT SHOWN IN FIG. 309, INCLUDING PORTIONS OF THE ZONA RETICULARIS AND MEDULLA. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 150. Photograph.

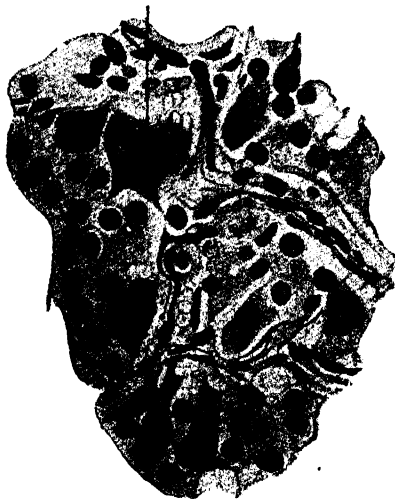


FIG. 311.—SECTION OF PARAGANGLION OF A NEW-BORN CHILD. (Zuckerkindl.)

disappear from the peripheral part of the medulla (W. Cramer). This happens in thyroid-fed animals and sometimes in animals (mice) exposed to temperatures above that of their body (fig. 312). It occurs after administration of adrenaline itself hypodermically, such administration being equivalent to sympathetic stimulation. The adrenaline also disappears as the result of a fall in body temperature when accompanied by exercise (Vincent).

The existence of adrenaline has been noted occasionally in cells of the zona reticularis of the cortex.

The blood supply of the suprarenals is very abundant (fig. 313). The dark brown or reddish colour of the medulla in the fresh gland is due to the blood

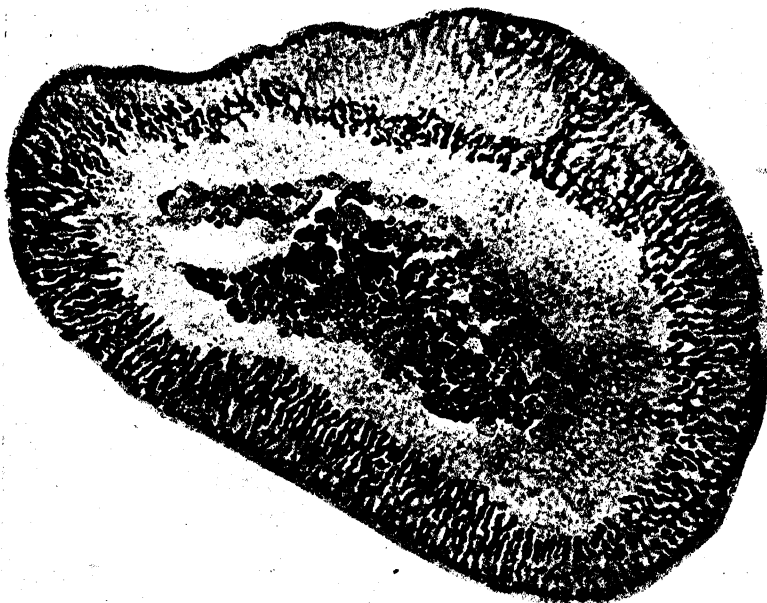


FIG. 312.—SUPRARENAL OF MOUSE WHICH HAD BEEN KEPT AT A TEMPERATURE OF 37° C. FOR TWO DAYS. (W. Cramer.) $\times 50$.

The lipoids of the cortex have disappeared in patches and the adrenaline is absent from the peripheral part of the medulla. Where present it is darkly stained.

contained in the large sinusoid spaces by which it is pervaded; the sinuses receive the blood after it has traversed the capillaries of the cortex, which receives numerous branches of the suprarenal artery entering the gland at its surface. A few arterioles pass straight to the medulla through the cortex. One large vein usually passes out at the hilus in the anterior surface of the gland. Investing the large issuing veins are longitudinal bundles of plain muscular fibres; but the walls of the sinuses have no other tissue than the endothelium, and even this may be deficient. Numerous amyelinate nerves, after traversing the cortical substance, are distributed throughout the medulla, where they form a close plexus around its cells. There are no nerve-cells within the gland.

DEVELOPMENT.

The medulla of the suprarenal is developed from cells which become detached from the rudiments of the sympathetic ganglia, and are therefore of neuro-ectodermal origin. The cortex is developed from the cœlomic epithelium and is hence derived from the mesoderm. The immigration of cells of sympathetic origin into the gland

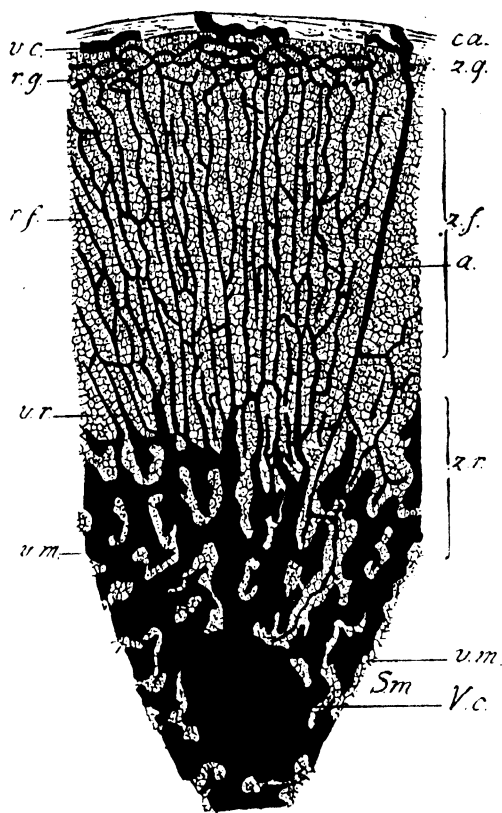


FIG. 313.—SECTION OF INJECTED SUPRARENAL. (Vialleton.)

ca, fibrous capsule of suprarenal; z.g., zona glomerulosa of cortex; z.f., zona fasciculata; z.r., zona reticularis; S.m., suprarenal medulla; v.c., vessels ramifying at surface; r.g., r.f., network of capillaries of zona glomerulosa and zona fasciculata; v.r., sinusoids of zona reticularis; v.m., sinusoids of medulla; V.c., central vein of medulla; a, an artery passing straight through the cortex to the medulla.

begins about the fourth week of foetal life and is said to continue until the tenth year after birth.

In the human foetus the suprarenals are unusually large. This is mainly owing to the development of a very vascular layer of the cortex next to the medulla known as the *boundary zone* (fig. 314, B). Its cells contain no lipid granules. At birth it forms a considerable part of the organ, the cortex proper being relatively thin, but by the end of the first year the boundary zone has disappeared and is replaced by the ordinary cortex. The adrenal cortex is stimulated to grow by the adrenaltropic hormone of the anterior lobe of the pituitary; removal of this causes atrophy.

THE CAROTID BODIES.

These are minute gland-like organs without ducts, lying at the bifurcation of the carotid artery. According to de Castro these organs are not endocrine but are sensory in function. They appear to respond to chemical changes in the blood (*e.g.*, variations in its oxygen and CO_2 con-



FIG. 314.—SECTION OF SUPRARENAL OF CHILD, 12 DAYS OLD.
(Elliott and Armour.) Low-power view.

A, outer part of cortex; B, boundary zone; C, medulla. Just below is the central vein.

tent) by altering the respiratory movements. The polyhedral cells, of which they are formed, are collected into spheroidal clumps or nodules, each supplied by a special arteriole and venule (fig. 315). The blood-capillaries have a sinusoid character (fig. 316). Among the cells of the carotid gland are some which stain dark brown with chrome salts like those of the medulla of the suprarenal glands. This has been interpreted as evidence that the carotid gland belongs to the chromaphil system. But, apparently, this is not the case, for although the carotid gland cells are secretory in type they contain no adrenaline, nor are they innervated by the sympathetic system. Each cell has a well-marked Golgi apparatus,

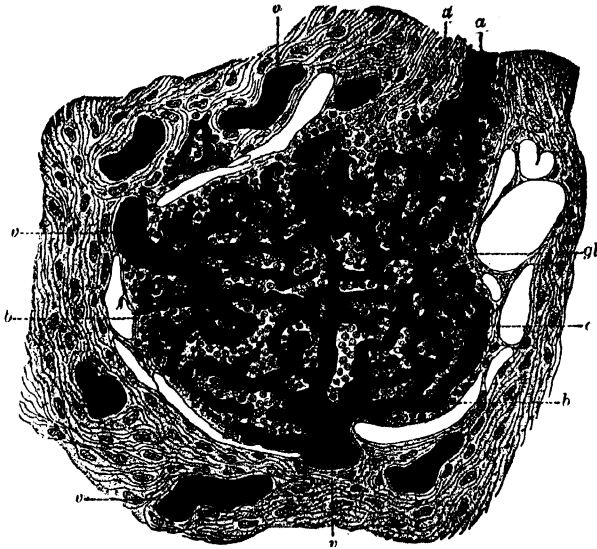


FIG. 315.—A CLUMP OR CELL-BALL FROM THE CAROTID GLAND: INJECTED.
(Schaper.)

a, arteriole; *r*, venules; *c*, sinus-like capillary within nodule; *gl*, group of gland-cells; *b*, boundary of nodule surrounded by lymph-space; *d*, internodular connective tissue of gland.

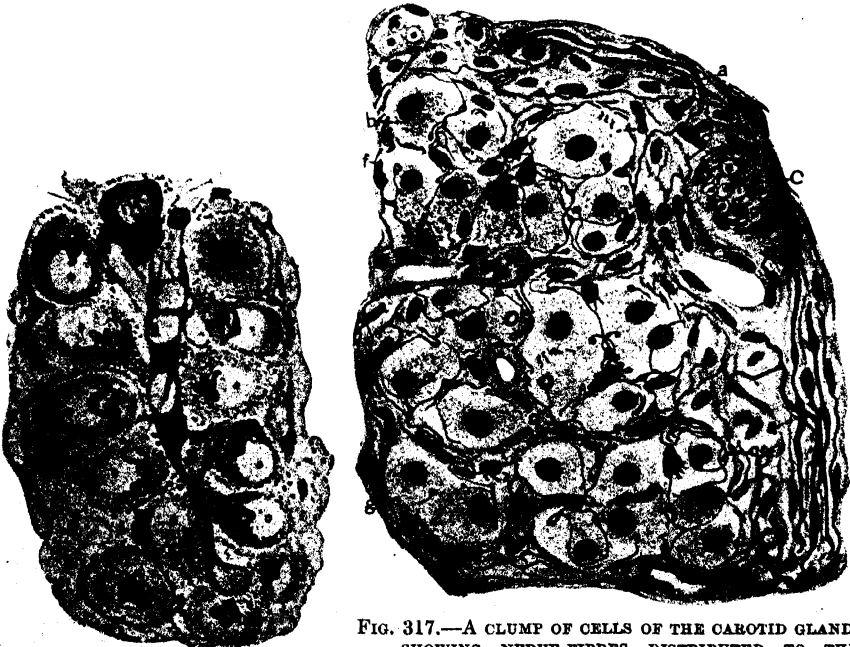


FIG. 316.—CELLS OF CAROTID GLAND CLOSELY SURROUNDING A SINUSOID BLOOD-VESSEL. (de Castro.)

Each cell shows a Golgi reticulum lying between the nucleus and the sinusoid.

FIG. 317.—A CLUMP OF CELLS OF THE CAROTID GLAND, SHOWING NERVE-FIBRES DISTRIBUTED TO THE CELLS. (de Castro.)

a, myelinate fibre dividing, as it approaches its termination, into two fine branches; *b*, cell closely surrounded by nerve-fibrils; *c*, section of a small nerve composed of several myelinate fibres; *f*, a nerve-fibril apparently ending within the cytoplasm of a cell; *g*, a nerve-fibril ending between two cells.

usually placed between the nucleus and the side of the cell in contact with a blood-vessel. The nerve-supply, which is very abundant, comes from the ninth cranial nerve, fine fibrils of which ramify between the cells in great profusion over the blood-vessels (fig. 317). Section of the ninth nerve causes cytological changes in the gland-cells.

THE COCCYGEAL GLAND.

The coccygeal gland, which lies ventral to the apex of the coccyx in man, is a small median organ, about $2\frac{1}{2}$ mm. in diameter. It is composed of irregular

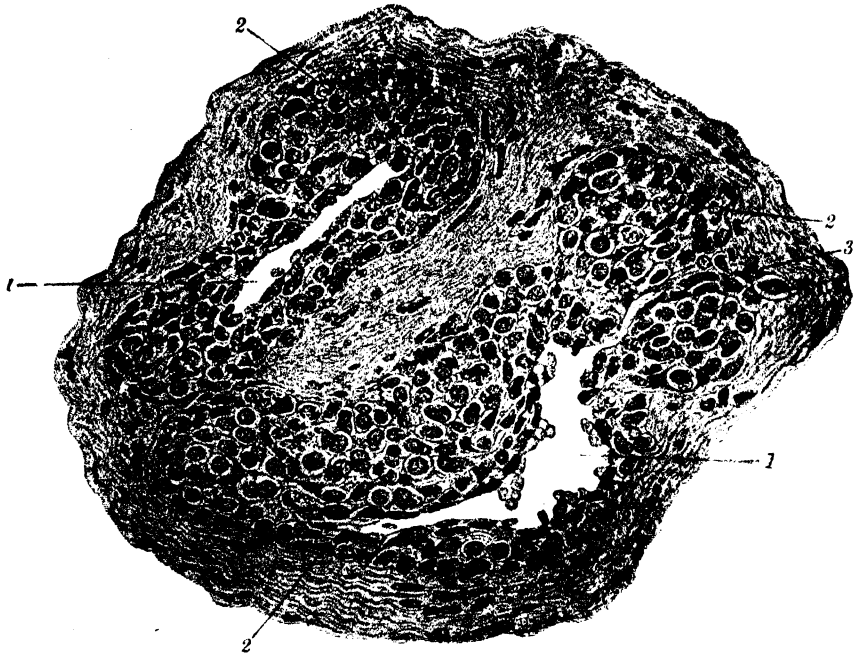


FIG. 318.—SECTION OF COCCYGEAL GLAND. (Walker.)

1, 1, blood-sinusoids; 2, 2, gland-cells; 3, connective tissue of the gland.

masses, more or less united, of epithelium-like cells embedded in a vascular fibrous stroma. The vessels are sinusoids and are closely beset by the cells of the gland (fig. 318). It is stated that some of the cells are chromophil and therefore secrete adrenaline, but this seems doubtful. The gland receives numerous nerves, mostly derived from the sympathetic. Its mode of development and function are unknown.

THE THYROID GLAND.

The thyroid gland or body consists of a framework of connective tissue enclosing numerous rounded or oval vesicles (fig. 319) lined with cubical epithelium-cells. Each epithelium-cell has many mitochondria and a reticular

apparatus of Golgi, which is generally situated in the part of the cytoplasm between the nucleus and the cavity of the vesicle. The vesicles are not provided with basement-membranes. The cavities of the vesicles are occupied by a peculiar viscous liquid, the thyroid *colloid*. This is coagulated by alcohol and many other fixatives and may then be stained with dyes. The colloid of the thyroid is unique in the fact that it contains organically combined iodine in the form of a substance (thyroglobulin). The active component (thyroxin) can be synthetically prepared. Colloid has been found in the lymphatics of the gland, and may sometimes be detected in the interstices of the connective tissue. The amount of colloid accumulated in the vesicles at any

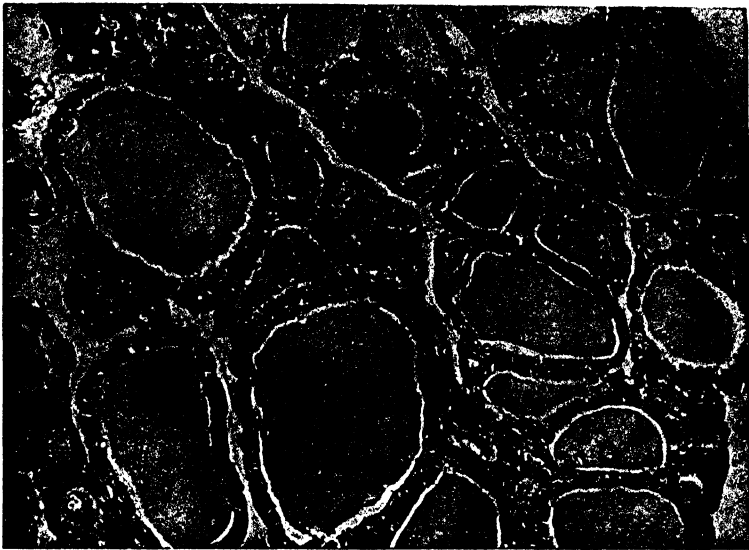


FIG. 319.—SECTION OF THYROID OF CAT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 400$.
Photograph.

The vesicles are occupied by colloid, which has partly shrunk away from the epithelium.
Some of the vesicles are cut so as to show only small sectors.

one time varies considerably (figs. 320, 321). The circumstances which influence its variations are not fully understood, although it may be stated that any excessive accumulation of colloid generally denotes inactivity on the part of the gland; actively secreting glands, on the other hand, usually contain but little colloid, and this of a more fluid nature. In sections (as in fig. 319) there is nearly always a space between the colloid and the cells of the vesicle. This space is an artefact, and is due to the shrinking effect of the fixative and of dehydration on the colloid.

During activity, which may be induced by exposure to cold, both the mitochondria and the Golgi apparatus are greatly enlarged; the whole cell at the same time becomes swollen and the colloid which has accumulated in the vesicles during rest is discharged. Exposure of animals (mice) to heat



FIG. 320.—THYROID (RAT) IN INACTIVE CONDITION, WITH THE VESICLES DISTENDED WITH COAGULATED COLLOID AND THE CELLS FLATTENED. (Chalmers Watson.) $\times 250$.



FIG. 321.—THYROID (RAT) IN ACTIVELY SECRETING CONDITION, WITH THE VESICLES SMALL AND CONTAINING LITTLE OR NO COAGULATED COLLOID AND THE EPITHELIUM-CELLS COLUMNAR OR CUBICAL. (Chalmers Watson.) $\times 250$.

produces the opposite effect, the mitochondria becoming almost invisible and the Golgi apparatus reduced in size (Cramer and Ludford).

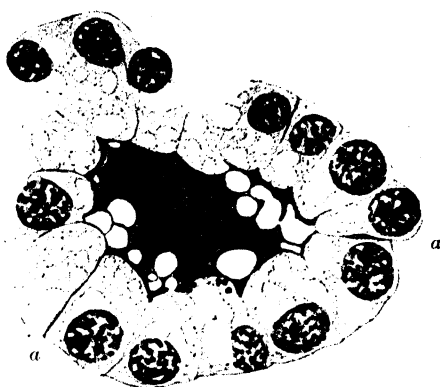


FIG. 322.—A THYROID VESICLE OF SALAMANDER, FIXED WHILST IN PROCESS OF SECRETION. (Uhlenhuth.) $\times 600$.

The secretion is seen to be formed within the cells, in which it has the appearance of vacuoles, and to be passed from them into the cavity of the vesicle. Here it undergoes a chemical change into colloid matter, which is deeply stained by the method here employed. At *a, a*, the secretion is seen passing away from the vesicle between its lining cells into the intervessel tissue of the gland from which it is taken up into the lymph and blood. [The section was stained with polychrome methylene blue and acid fuchsin, and in the actual specimen the colloid is not stained uniformly but is blue near the centre and red near the periphery.]

The classical conception holds that the colloid is formed within the cells as a clear colourless unstainable material, which is extruded into the vesicles and progressively modified so as to become stainable with basic and subsequently with acid dyes. It is believed to pass from the vesicles into the lymph-spaces of the gland through clefts between the epithelium-cells. There is no evidence that it is secreted directly into the blood-vessels, although it may be taken up from the connective-tissue spaces into the veins. But most of it probably passes into the blood by way of the lymph.

Bensley, however, has demonstrated by a special technique that small vacuoles, containing colloid-like material in a dilute concentration, may be seen in the internal poles of the cells. Other vacuoles, with clear contents, may be seen in the external regions of the cells adjacent to the capillary vessels. It is hence suggested by Bensley that the formation of colloid may be a phenomenon associated with secretion, but *not* the actual secretion itself. The intravesicular colloid might, for instance, be a by-product, the actual secretion, proceeding from the external pole of the thyroid cell, being passed directly into the capillary blood-vessels or lymphatics.



FIG. 323.—VESSELS OF THYROID OF DOG : INJECTED. (E. Sharpey - Schafer.) Photographed under a low power.

The thyroid is one of the most vascular organs in the body, the blood-vessels being very numerous in proportion to the size of the gland. The capillaries form close plexuses round the vesicles (fig. 323), and even penetrate between the lining epithelium-cells.

There is frequently to be found in connexion with the thyroid, generally embedded in its substance, a small mass of tissue which resembles the thymus in structure, and, like it, contains concentric corpuscles. This *accessory thymus* is developed from the fourth pair of branchial clefts.

DEVELOPMENT.

The thyroid is formed like an ordinary gland, by a solid outgrowth of the buccal epithelium, subsequently becoming hollowed to form a duct—ductus thyreoglossus. Later, the now branched solid outgrowth grows down into the region of the neck, losing its connexion with the mouth. The vesicles of the future gland appear to be formed by accumulation of secretion from groups of cells separated by vascular tissue, each cell of the group pouring its colloid secretion into a common centre.

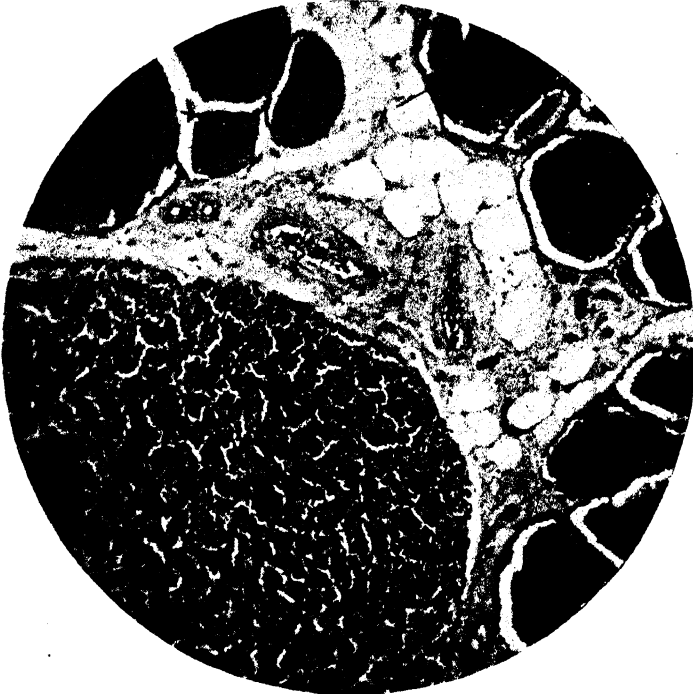


FIG. 324.—SECTION OF PARATHYROID AND THYROID. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 100$.
c, capsule of parathyroid containing adipose tissue (a.t.) and two arteries; p.t., parathyroid; t, thyroid.

PARATHYROIDES.

In close proximity to, or embedded in, the substance of the thyroid are always to be found four very small glandular organs differing in structure from the thyroid proper (fig. 324). These bodies are formed of masses or

columns of epithelium-cells (fig. 325), some of which are much larger than the rest and are filled with oxyphil granules (Welsh). Numerous sinusoid blood-channels run between the columns and come into close relationship with the cells. The secretion formed by the cells is passed directly into the blood-vessels. Here and there a vesicle filled with a material resembling colloid may be seen. This colloid, when it occurs, is not, however, of the same chemical nature as that of the thyroid, for it contains no iodine.

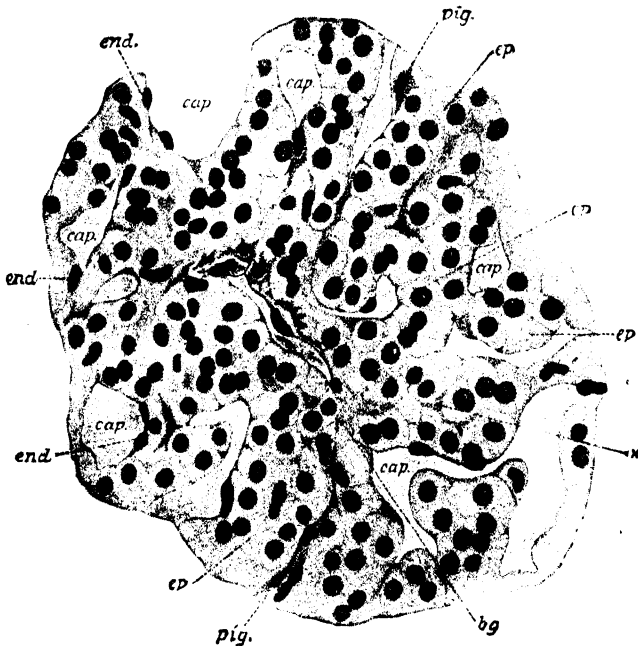


FIG. 325.—SECTION OF PARATHYROID. (Kohn.) Highly magnified.

ep., secreting epithelium-cells; *cap.*, sinusoids; *end.*, endothelium of sinusoids, deficient in many places; *pig.*, endothelium-cells containing pigment (perhaps corresponding with the Kupffer cells of the liver).

Each parathyroid is enclosed within a capsule, which is said to contain plain muscular tissue. The parathyroid hormone plays an important part in the control of calcium metabolism.

DEVELOPMENT.

The parathyroids are developed, like the thymus (p. 255), as epithelial outgrowths from the third and fourth branchial clefts of the embryo; in contrast with the thymus they never normally accumulate lymphocyte-like cells and are not tubular in character. They lose all connexion with the walls of the clefts from which they arise. Although they retain an epithelial structure, they nevertheless become highly vascularised, the so-called 'capillaries' being really sinusoids.

THE PITUITARY BODY.

The pituitary body (*hypophysis cerebri*) is in man about the size of the kernel of a cobnut; it lies in the sella turcica, and is connected with the

third ventricle by the infundibulum. It consists of four parts : *pars anterior*, *pars intermedia*, *pars nervosa*, and *pars tuberalis*.

When the gland is removed from the body the *pars tuberalis*, which is adherent to the base of the brain and is only united with the rest of the gland by a narrow stalk, remains in position, so that the separated gland consists of *pars anterior*, *pars intermedia*, and *pars nervosa* only.

Between the *pars anterior* and *pars intermedia* there is in most animals a cleft-like space containing glairy fluid (in man this cleft disappears in the adult or is replaced by isolated cysts). It is easy to separate the gland at the cleft into two lobes, anterior and posterior ; the *pars anterior* forms an *anterior lobe*, the *pars intermedia* and the *pars nervosa* together form a *posterior lobe*.

REGIONS OF THE PITUITARY.

Anatomical nomenclature.		Physiological nomenclature.		Embryological origin.
<i>Pars tuberalis</i> .		<i>Pars tuberalis</i> .		
<i>Anterior lobe</i> .		<i>Pars anterior</i> .		From Rathki's pouch, i.e., buccal ectoderm.
—————	Cleft	—————		
<i>Posterior lobe</i> .		(<i>Pars intermedia</i> .		Outgrowth from floor of 3rd ventricle.
		„ <i>nervosa</i>		

The *pars anterior* is the largest part of the organ (figs. 326, 327), and is extremely vascular. Its capillaries have a sinusoid character, the cells being set closely round them (see coloured plate). In photographs of injected prepara-

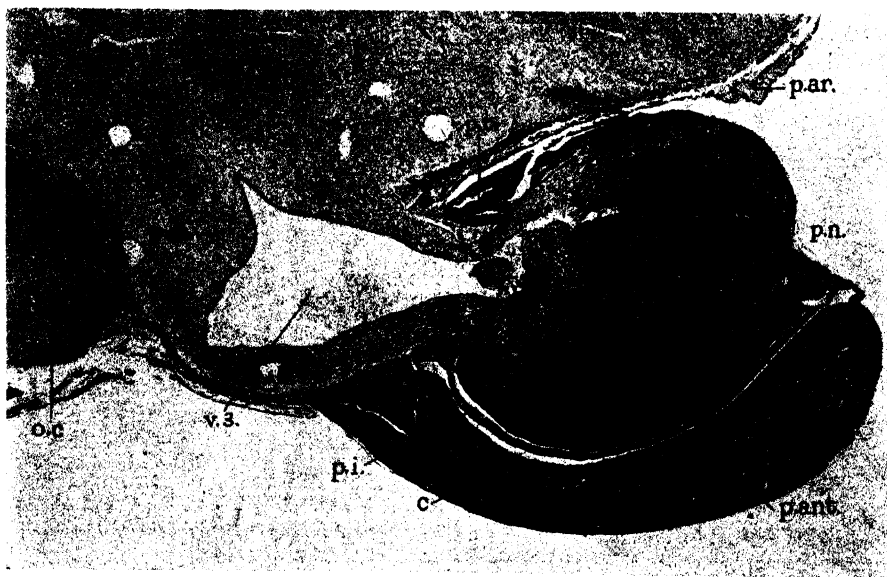


FIG. 326.—MEDIAN SAGITTAL SECTION THROUGH BASE OF BRAIN AND PITUITARY OF DOG.
(H. M. Carleton.) × 18. Photograph.

c, pituitary cleft between the *pars anterior* and the *pars intermedia*. (The smaller cleft between the *intermedia* and the *pars nervosa* is an artefact often seen in sections of pituitary ; it is due to shrinkage during dehydration and clearing.) *o.c.*, optic chiasma ; *p. ant.*, *pars anterior* ; *p. ar.*, a fragment of pia arachnoid ; *p.i.*, *pars intermedia* ; *p.n.*, *pars nervosa* ; *p.t.*, *pars tuberalis* ; *v.3.*, third ventricle.

tions the pars anterior appears almost black on account of the number of vessels it contains (fig. 327). This is also the case with the pars tuberalis.

The cells of the pars anterior are of two kinds, clear and granular. The clear cells are known as *chromaphobe cells*, the granular as *chromaphil cells*. The granular cells again are of two kinds, distinguishable from one another by the staining properties of their granules. In most, the granules are *oxyphil* and stain with eosin; these constitute about 37 per cent. of the cells in man (Rasmussen); the rest contain *basiphil granules* (11 per cent.). It



FIG. 327.—BASE OF BRAIN AND PITUITARY OF CAT: INJECTED.
(P. T. Herring.) Magnified. Photograph.

a, chiasma; b, pars tuberalis; c, ventricle; d, anterior lobe; e, an extension of pars tuberalis; f, posterior lobe (pars intermedia and pars nervosa) separated from anterior lobe by cleft; g, artery entering posterior lobe; h, vein leaving it.

is generally supposed that the chromaphil cells are much more numerous than the chromaphobe, but Rasmussen found that this is not the case, the chromaphobes constituting about 52 per cent. of the total number. Occasionally the cells of the pars anterior are set round closed vesicles containing colloid, although this is more common in the pars intermedia. Such vesicles are conspicuous after thyroidectomy; also in myxoedema (Hale-White). They are probably temporary in nature, and not permanent structures like the thyroid vesicles.

The pars anterior is enlarged in tall subjects; greatly so in giants and in the affection known as *acromegaly*, this condition only occurring after the

union of the epiphyses. The oxyphil cells especially are then large and numerous. During pregnancy also the oxyphils are found to become increased in size and number. So likewise in the male after castration (castration cells). Tumours of the basophil elements are found in conjunction with *hypopituitarism*. In this condition adiposity, poor skeletal development, impotence, low mental and metabolic processes are after present.

The hormones formed in the pars anterior comprise those controlling the activities of the following: the testis and ovary; the mammary gland, adrenals and thyroid; the metabolism of fats and carbohydrates.

The **pars intermedia** is less vascular than the pars anterior: when thin



FIG. 328.—SECTION OF PITUITARY OF CAT PASSING THROUGH THE INTERGLANDULAR CLEFT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Preparation by M. Kojima.

a, pars anterior with numerous large sinus-like capillaries (seen as clear spaces); b, cleft;
c, pars intermedia showing several vesicles; d, pars nervosa.

it has no blood-vessels at all. It extends in some animals (cat) around the pars nervosa. Its cells are clear, without obvious granules, and here and there are set round colloid-containing vesicles (fig. 328). At the margins of the cleft which separates them in the middle of the gland the junction between pars intermedia and pars anterior is not sharply defined. On the other hand, the pars intermedia is well marked off from the pars nervosa, except in certain places. At those places its cells are continued into the pars nervosa, either singly or in groups. They there appear to undergo a peculiar degeneration resulting in the formation of hyaline or granular 'colloid' masses, which retain their cell-nuclei for some time. These colloid bodies (termed from their discoverer 'Herring's bodies') can often be seen in the tissue of the pars nervosa (fig. 329).

A hormone controlling pigment formation has been allocated to the *pars intermedia*. So also has the formation of pituitrin.

The ***pars nervosa***, in spite of its designation, contains in the adult no cells of a definite nervous character, but is mainly formed of neuroglia elements and of ependyma fibres (fig. 329). It has far fewer blood-vessels than the *pars anterior* and *pars tuberalis*, but more than the *pars intermedia*. It receives a certain number of nerve-fibres which arise from large cells in the grey matter just behind the optic chiasma. Some of these fibres penetrate into the glandular substance of the *pars intermedia* and *pars anterior*, and have been traced to the cells of those parts as well as to their blood-vessels.



FIG. 329.—SECTION OF *PARS NERVOSA* OF PITUITARY OF CAT NEAR THE NECK OF THE GLAND. (P. T. Herring.)

a, ependyma cells lining an extension of the infundibulum into the gland; *b*, masses of hyaline colloid within this extension; *c*, ependyma fibres of *pars nervosa*; *d*, *e*, hyaline and granular colloid lying between these fibres.

Some authors ascribe the formation of pituitrin to the *pars nervosa*; against this is the absence of any obvious gland cells in this region of the pituitary gland.

Baracque found, in new-born infants, tubulo-racemose glands in the posterior lobe, secreting colloid into the cleft. This is confirmed by D. Lewis and F. C. Lee, who also noted in various parts of the posterior lobe of man the occurrence of basophil cells, like those seen in the *pars anterior*.

The ***pars tuberalis*** (Tilney) forms an extension of the epithelial part of the gland along the stalk which connects the pituitary body with the base of the brain and third ventricle. It ensheathes the stalk and spreads over the lower surface of the base of the brain, especially over the tuber cinereum—hence the name. In man it appears to consist of solid strands of epithelial

cells, but in animals (ox, cat) it exhibits a vesicular structure (fig. 330); the vesicles being lined by cubical epithelium and occupied by a colloid-like material. The *pars tuberalis* is extraordinarily vascular in all animals, including man.

This part of the pituitary is developed later than the rest of the gland, from which in some animals (*e.g.*, frog) it becomes entirely separate. Although its functions are at present uncertain, it is evident from the peculiarity of



FIG. 330.—SECTION OF PARS TUBERALIS OF OX PITUITARY. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 60. Photograph.

In the upper part of the figure is a section of the base of the third ventricle. The intimate attachment of the *pars tuberalis* to this is very apparent.

its structure and its extreme vascularity that it must play an important part in the physiology of the organ. Some authors regard the *pars tuberalis* as the part of the pituitary which forms the diuretic hormone.

DEVELOPMENT.

The *pars anterior* and *pars intermedia* are ectodermal in origin, being developed as a hollow protrusion of the buccal epithelium. The young gland at first consists of a number of tubules, lined by epithelium and united by connective tissue. The lumen of the tubules, however, becomes obliterated in the adult, the tubules being converted into solid cell-masses.

The *pars tuberalis* is formed as two vesicles growing out from the *pars anterior*;

they eventually fuse. The pars tuberalis then spreads around the neural stalk of the hypophysis and beneath the tuber cinereum.

The *pars nervosa* is also ectodermal in origin, but is derived from the neural, not from the buccal, ectoderm. It arises as a downgrowth from the floor of the third ventricle. Contact of this rudiment with the pars anterior occurs at the fifth week of foetal life in man.

PINEAL BODY.

The pineal body or *epiphysis cerebri* appears in the adult as a small reddish body, rounded or conical, attached by a short stalk just above the entrance of the aqueduct of Sylvius into the third ventricle and lying in the groove between the anterior pair of corpora quadrigemina. It is less than half the size of the pituitary body.

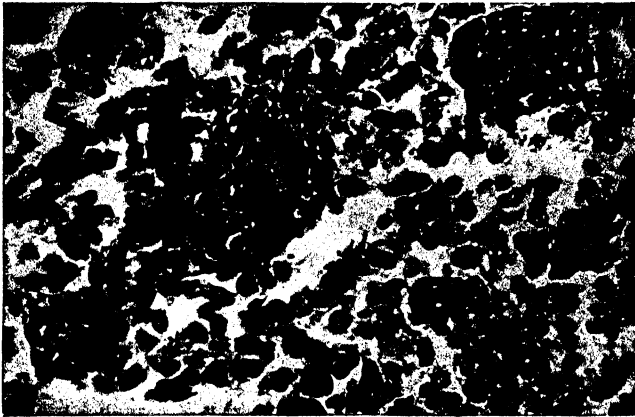


FIG. 331.—SECTION OF PINEAL OF NEW-BORN CHILD SHOWING LOOSELY ARRANGED CELL-TRABECULÆ WITH LARGE BLOOD-VESSELS BETWEEN THEM. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) The vessels are full of blood-corpuscles which appear dark in the photograph. $\times 400$.

The structure of the pineal is best studied in the young subject, for as age advances its distinctive cells become less numerous. A number of calcareous nodules are then found within it, known as *corpora amylacea* (brain sand): these, however, are not special to the pineal but occur in the pia mater and in its extensions in various parts of the nervous system.

The young pineal shows in section masses or trabeculae of cells with large sinus-like blood-vessels between them (fig. 331): while neuroglia cells and fibres are present in abundance in the intertrabecular tissue and also between the gland-cells. Nerve-cells are almost or completely absent.

The cells are of two kinds. The majority have oval nuclei and fine oxyphil granules; in the remainder the nuclei are spherical and the granules basiphil. Most of the cells have processes, many ending in knobs; some are attached to the blood-vessels. They exhibit a great variety of form (fig. 332). Cells with large oxyphil granules such as frequently occur in

the pituitary are not seen in the pineal, nor are vesicles containing colloid observed.

The cells contain mitochondria, chiefly in the form of short rods. Some of the cells are pigmented.

After puberty the pineal body undergoes regressive changes. These consist chiefly in diminution in number of the cells and increase in amount of the supporting connective tissue and neuroglia-fibres, with greatly

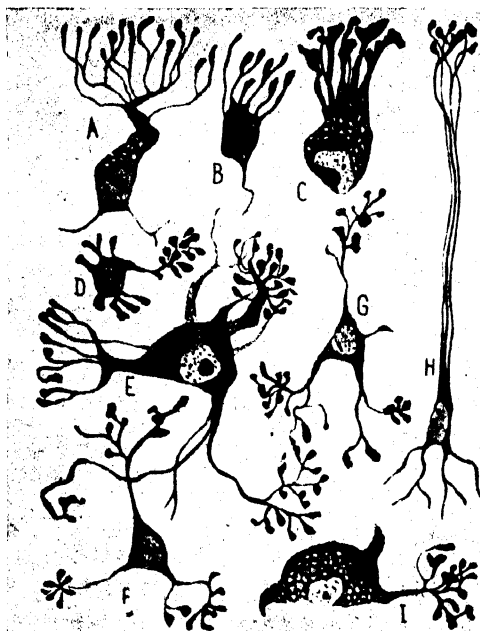


FIG. 332.—CELLS OF PINEAL BODY: HUMAN ADULT. (Del Rio Hortega.)
Highly magnified.

diminished vascularity. No function has as yet been definitely ascribed to this organ. It is known, however, to be one of a pair of photo-receptor organs found in primitive vertebrates.

DEVELOPMENT.

The pineal is developed as an outgrowth of the neural ectoderm of the roof of the third ventricle. In certain reptiles the evagination which produces it is closely associated with another evagination passing to the surface of the skull in the middle line and developing into an unpaired median eye. In mammals there are many variations in the extent and general structure of the pineal evagination.

LESSONS XXIV. AND XXV.

THE SKIN.

1. EXAMINE sections of skin from the palmar surface of a finger. Pin out the skin with hedgehog quills on a paraffined cork; then fix in Susa. The sections are made vertically to the surface, and should extend as far as the subcutaneous tissue. Hæmatoxylin and eosin may be used as a stain. But the best pictures of the epidermal cells (and particularly the cell-bridges) are obtained after iron hæmatoxylin. Notice the layers of the epidermis and their different behaviour to staining fluids. Notice also the papillæ projecting from the corium into the epidermis and look for tactile corpuscles within them. In very thin parts of the sections the fine intercellular channels in the deeper parts of the epithelium (see Lesson VII.) may be seen with a high power. The convoluted tubes of the sweat glands are visible here and there in the deeper parts of the corium, and in thick sections the corkscrew-like channels by which the sweat is conducted through the epidermis may also be observed. Make a sketch showing the general structure under a low power, and other sketches to exhibit the more important details under a high power.

2. Examine sections of the skin of the scalp (*a*) vertical to the surface and parallel to the slope of the hair-follicles, and (*b*) parallel to the surface, and across the hair-follicles. Fix, stain, and mount in the usual way. Sections stained in iron hæmatoxylin and Van Gieson are very demonstrative.

3. Examine a longitudinal section of the nail and nail bed of a still-born child. Fix in formol, decalcify and embed in celloidin. Then stain in hæmatoxylin and eosin. Such a specimen also demonstrates the mode of ossification of the terminal phalanx.

4. Examine hairs pulled out of the scalp and treated by Smith and Glaister's method. Place the hairs to clean them in a corked tube of equal parts of absolute alcohol and ether. Leave for fifteen minutes—dry with filter paper and clean for fifteen minutes in benzol. Then mount in balsam. Examine a day or two later in order to allow time for the penetration of the balsam.

5. Mount a section from a portion of skin in which the blood-vessels have been injected and the nuclei counterstained with hæmatoxylin. Notice the distribution of the capillaries to the sweat glands, to the hair-follicles, and to the papillary surface of the corium. Observe that the epidermis is devoid of blood-vessels.

6. The cells composing the nails and hairs can be isolated by warming a small piece of nail or hair in strong sulphuric acid; after this treatment the cells are readily separated from one another by pressure upon the cover glass.

7. Examine sections of resting and lactating mammary gland, preferably human or monkey. Failing such material the gland of a dog may be used. Fix in Susa and stain with hæmatoxylin and eosin.

To show the fat-globules within the cells, the gland should be fixed in 2 per cent. bichromate of potassium for ten days and a thin piece then transferred to Marchi's fluid (see Appendix) for a few days; after which sections are cut and mounted in dammar, with or without further staining with hæmatoxylin. Sections of mammary gland which is not secreting should also be studied.

TABLE OF LAYERS OF SKIN.

I. Stratum corneum.	{ Thin, anucleate, squamous; nearly all cellular structure lost; thickest on palmar and plantar surfaces, thinnest on outer aspect of lips.
II. Stratum lucidum.	{ Cell outlines indistinct and nuclei usually lacking; presents a hyaline and band-like appearance in sections due to presence of flakes of kerato-hyalin.
III. Stratum granulosum (often included under IV).	{ A thin and irregular layer; nucleated; cell outlines clear; the name due to presence of abundant granules of eleidin.
IV. Rete mucosum or Malpighian layer.	{ Majority of cells polyhedral with well-marked cell-bridges and fibrils. Cells of basal layer columnar and often showing mitoses.
V. Dermis.	{ Composed of collagen and elastic fibres and containing blood-vessels, lymphatics, nerves, sense organs, sweat glands, etc.

NOTE.—It must be realised that transitions, varying greatly in degree, exist between the layers enumerated above, with, however, the exception of IV and V. Layers I to IV constitute the epidermis.

The **epidermis**, or scarf skin, is a stratified epithelium (fig. 335). It is composed of a number of layers of cells, the deeper of which are soft and

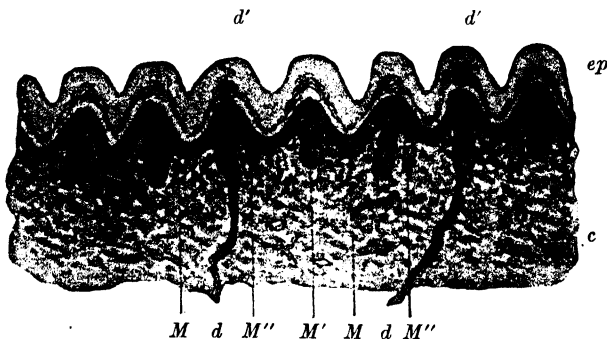


FIG. 333.—SECTION OF SKIN OF HEEL. (Blaschko.)

ep, epidermis, showing ridges cut across; *c*, cutis vera; *d*, *d*, ducts of sweat glands; *d'*, *d'*, their openings at the surface of the papillary ridge; *M*, Malpighian layer of epidermis thickened opposite the ridges, where it dips down into the cutis vera; at *M'*, *M''*, leaving papillary prominences of the cutis between.

protoplasmic, and form the *rete mucosum* of Malpighi, while the superficial layers are hard and horny, this horny portion sometimes constituting the greater part of the thickness of the epidermis. The deepest cells of the *rete mucosum*, which are set on the surface of the cutis vera, are columnar in shape, those immediately above the basal layer are polyhedral. Many of the deeper cells show mitoses, an indication that the epidermis is regenerated from these cells. The deepest cells of the *rete mucosum*, especially in the darker parts of the skin, exhibit granules of the pigment

melanin. These are particularly abundant in the darker races of mankind. Pigment may also be found in the branched cells which are often seen lying

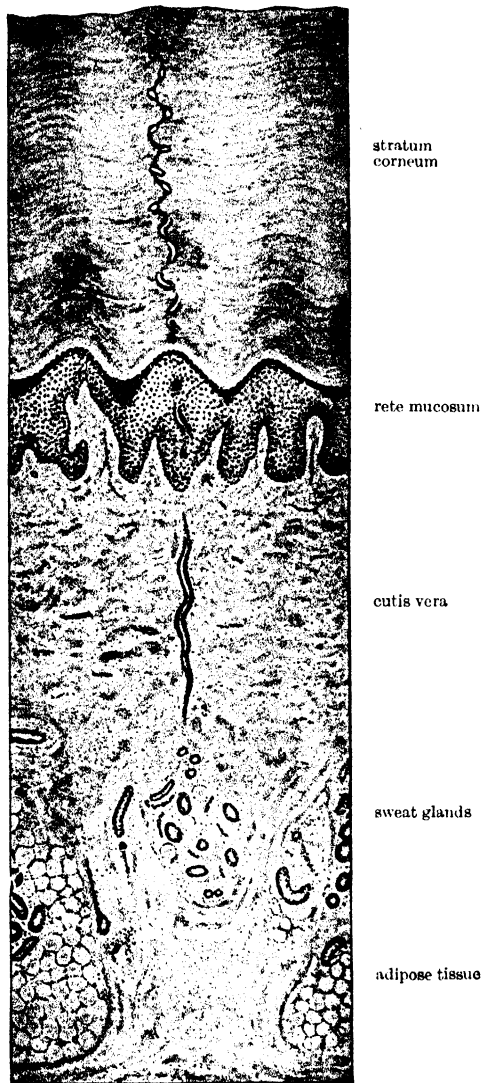


FIG. 334.—VERTICAL SECTION THROUGH THE SKIN OF THE SOLE OF THE FOOT. THE SPIRAL COURSE OF THE DUCT OF A SWEAT GLAND IS WELL SHOWN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 25$.

in the cutis vera, especially where there is much pigment in the epidermis. Between all the cells of the rete mucosum there are fine intercellular clefts separating the cells from one another, but bridged across by fibres which pass from cell to cell (fig. 75), and also through the substance of the cells

(fig. 76). The intercellular channels probably serve for the passage of lymph to maintain the nutrition of the cells.

In addition to the cells described there is present, in the deeper layers of the rete mucosum, a third type of element. This is the *melanoblast* or cell of Langerhans. This cell has branching processes which ramify between the other cells, and it can be clearly defined by means of a procedure known as the 'dopa' reaction, which stains it black. Although unpigmented there

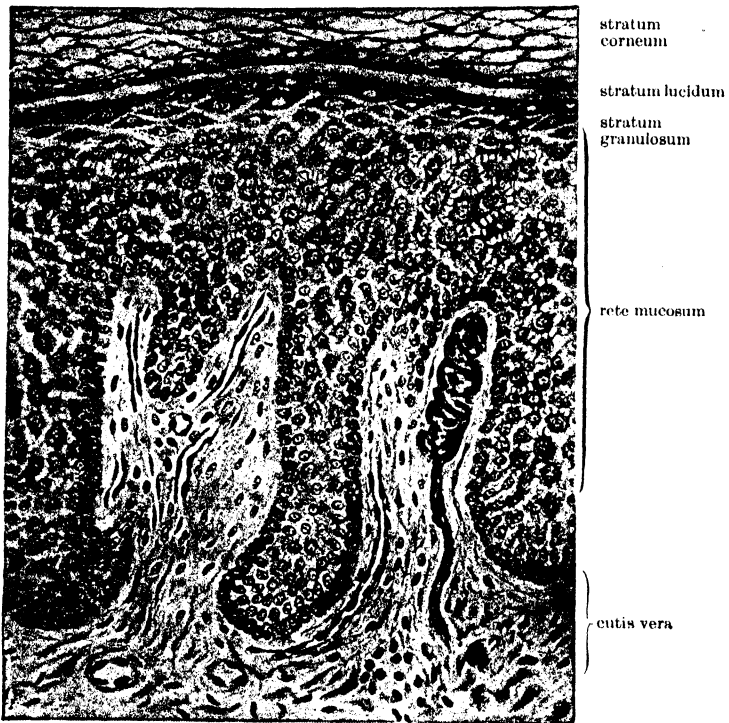


FIG. 335.—VERTICAL SECTION THROUGH THE SKIN OF THE PALMAR SIDE OF THE FINGER, SHOWING TWO OR THREE PAPILLÆ AND THE DEEPER LAYERS OF THE EPIDERMIS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$.

One of the papillæ contains a tactile corpuscle; the others blood-vessels.

is reason to believe that the melanoblast is in some way responsible for the appearance of melanin in the cells of the stratum Malpighi.

The superficial layer of the rete mucosum is formed of somewhat flattened cells filled with granules or droplets of a material (*eleïdin*) staining deeply with carmine and hæmatoxylin. These cells form an irregular layer termed *stratum granulosum* (fig. 335). This is not sharply marked off from the rete mucosum next to it, for many of the cells of this show similar granules, although they fill the cells less completely. Superficial to the stratum granulosum is a layer in which the cell-outlines are indistinct and the cells contain flakes or larger droplets of a hyaline material, *kerato-hyalin*, staining

less intensely than the granules in the last layer, and tending to run together (fig. 336, *b*). This layer has a clear appearance in section, and is known as the *stratum lucidum*. The cells in this layer are devoid of nuclei and are apparently dead. Immediately superficial to the *stratum lucidum* is the *horny part* or *stratum corneum* of the epidermis. It is composed of a number of layers of epithelium-cells, to which the term epithelial *squames* is more appropriate since, being anucleate, they can no longer by definition be regarded as true cells. These squames, near the surface, are thin and horny, and eventually become detached. In certain parts which have a thick epidermis and are not covered with hair (*e.g.*, the palms and soles), the superficial part of the epidermis is a layer mainly formed by a number of greatly swollen squames, forming collectively what has been termed the

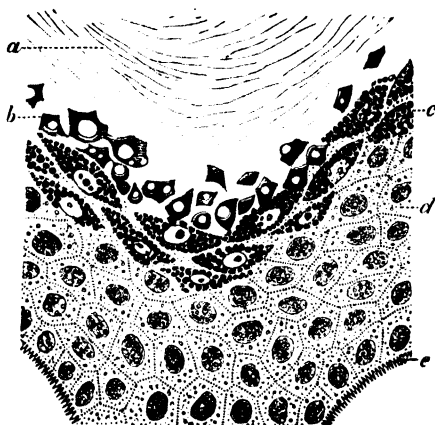


FIG. 336.—PORTION OF EPIDERMIS FROM A SECTION OF THE FINGER, STAINED WITH PICROCARMINE. (Ranvier.)

a, stratum corneum; *b*, stratum lucidum with flakes of kerato-hyalin; *c*, stratum granulosum, the cells filled with drops of eleidin; *d*, prickle-cells; *e*, dentate projections by which the deepest cells of the epidermis are fixed to the cutis vera.

epitrichial layer. In the embryo in the second and third months of intra-uterine life it covers the whole body, but is thrown off where hairs are developed.

The growth of the epidermis takes place by a multiplication of the cells of the deeper layers. The newly formed cells, as they grow, push towards the surface those previously formed, and in their progress the latter undergo a chemical transformation, their protoplasm being converted into horny material: this change seems to occur just at and above the stratum granulosum (see fig. 336). The granules of eleidin occupying the cells of the stratum granulosum are chemically transformed into the *keratin* of the more superficial strata.

The **cutis vera** or **dermis** is composed of dense connective tissue, which becomes more open and reticular in texture in its deeper part, where it merges into the subcutaneous tissue. It is thickest over the posterior aspect of the trunk, whereas the epidermis is thickest on the palms of the hands

and soles of the feet. The superficial or vascular layer of the corium bears microscopic *papillæ*; these project into the epidermis, which is moulded over and attached to them; they contain abundant elastic fibres. Most of the dermic papillæ have looped capillary vessels projecting into them from the network in the cutis vera, but some, especially those of the palmar surface of the hands and fingers, and the corresponding parts in the foot, contain tactile corpuscles, to which myelinate nerve-fibres pass (fig. 335).

In some parts of the body (scrotum, penis, nipple and its areola) involuntary muscular tissue occurs in the deeper portion of the cutis vera; and,

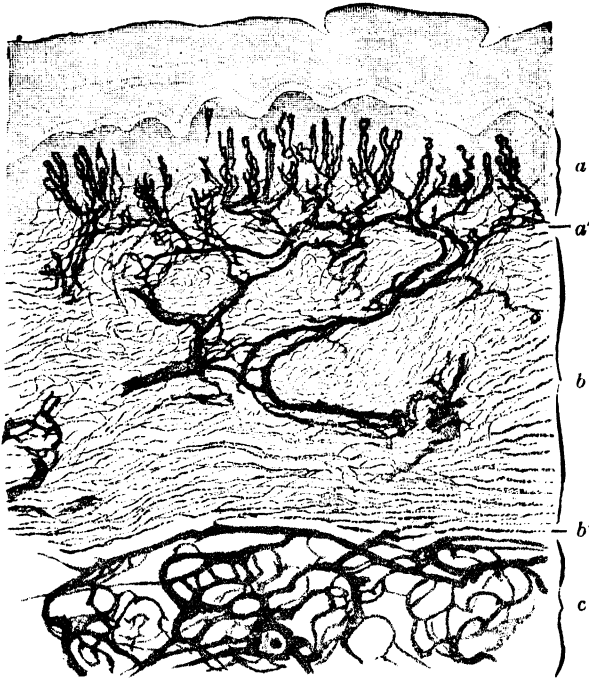


FIG. 337.—SECTION OF SKIN WITH BLOOD-VESSELS INJECTED. (v. Brunn.)

a, papillary layer of derma; a', sub-papillary plexus; b, reticular layer of derma; b', sub-dermic plexus; c, vessels of panniculus adiposus.

in addition, wherever hairs occur, small bundles of this tissue are attached to the hair-follicles.

The blood-vessels of the skin are distributed almost entirely to the surface. where they form a close capillary network, sending up loops into the papillæ as already noted (figs. 335, 337). Special branches are also sent to the various appendages of the skin, viz., the sweat glands and hair-follicles, with their sebaceous glands and muscles. Numerous vessels also pass to the adipose tissue which is usually present in the deeper parts of the cutis.

No blood-vessels pass into the epidermis, but it receives nerves which ramify between the cells of the rete mucosum in the form of fine varicose

fibrils. In some parts these are enlarged at their extremity and along their course into menisci lying between the deeper epidermis cells. Such terminations are seen in the skin over the pig's snout (fig. 243, p. 203) and in the root-sheaths of hairs (fig. 347). They also occur in the neighbourhood of the entrance of sweat-ducts into the epidermis (Ranvier).

The lymphatics originate near the surface in a network of vessels, placed a little deeper than the blood-capillary network. They receive branches from the papillæ, and pass into larger vessels, which are valved, and run in the deeper or reticular part of the corium. From these the lymph is carried away by still larger vessels, coursing in the subcutaneous tissue.

For the modes of ending of nerves in the skin, see Lesson XIX.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SKIN.

The cutis vera is entirely formed from mesoderm, but the epidermis and the nails, hairs and cutaneous glands are all ectodermic in origin. The ectoderm is at first single-layered but differentiates into two layers during the first month of foetal life. The inner becomes many-layered and develops into the future epidermis. The outer layer is known as the *epitrichium*. It also thickens and its cells become vesicular, persisting in this condition until the sixth month of intra-uterine life. Most of the cells are then shed and mingle with the secretion of the sebaceous glands. A waxy covering—the *vernix caseosa*—is thus formed. This covers the embryonic epidermis until birth and serves to protect it against maceration by the amniotic fluid. But in some situations the epitrichium persists as a superficial layer which covers the epidermis.

The **appendages of the skin** are the *nails*, the *hairs*, the *sebaceous glands*, and the *sweat glands*. They are all developed as thickenings and downgrowths of the Malpighian layer of the epidermis.

THE NAILS.

The **nails** are thickenings of the deeper part of the stratum corneum developed over a specially modified portion of the skin (fig. 338), which is known as the *matrix* or *bed of the nail*; the depression at the posterior part of the nail-bed from which the nail grows forward being known as the *nail groove*. The distal part of the nail projects beyond the rest of the *free border*; this is the thickest part of the nail, the thinnest being at the bottom of the nail grove. The substance of the nail is composed of clear horny cells, somewhat like the cells of the stratum lucidum of the rest of the epidermis, except that they are much more keratinised. Each contains the remains of a nucleus. The horny nail proper rests immediately upon a Malpighian layer or rete mucosum similar to that found in the epidermis generally, but destitute of a defined stratum granulosum. Nevertheless, the more superficial cells of the rete mucosum contain a large number of special granules which appear to represent those of the stratum granulosum of the epidermis. The granules, however, are not composed of eleidin, but of a material known as the *onychogenic substance* of Ranvier which stains brown instead of red with

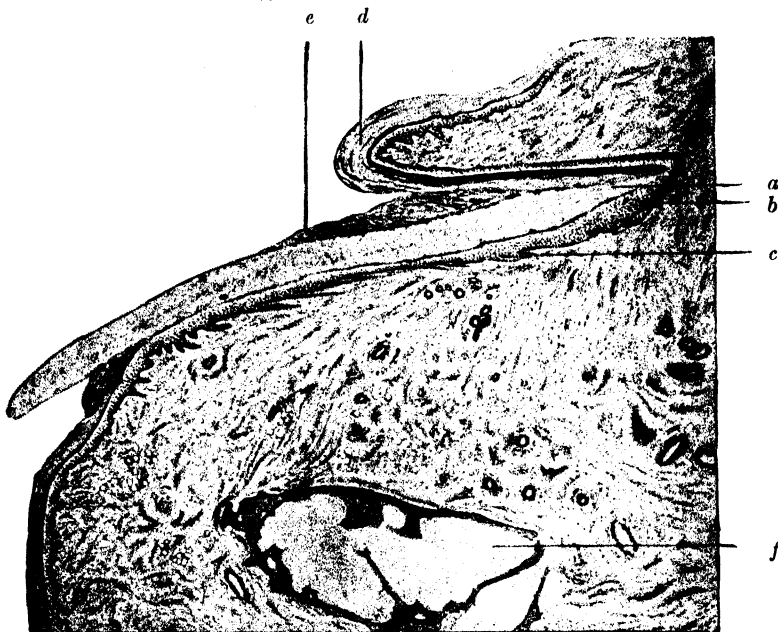


FIG. 338.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION THROUGH THE ROOT OF THE NAIL AND ITS MATRIX. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 10$.

a, root of nail ; *b*, Malpighian layer of matrix ; *c*, ridges in cutis of nail-bed ; *d*, epitrichial layer of epidermis continuous with *e*, eponychium ; *f*, bone (terminal phalanx) of finger.



FIG. 339.—TRANSVERSE SECTION ACROSS NAIL TAKEN NEAR ONE EDGE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 50$. Photograph.

The apparent papillae are really sections of ridges or laminae of the cutis vera projecting into the Malpighian layer of the nail.

carmine ; a similar material occurs in the cells which form the fibrous substance and cuticula of the hairs. The cutis of the nail-bed is beset with longitudinal ridges (fig. 339) instead of the papillæ which are present over the remainder of the skin ; these ridges, like the rest of the superficial part of the cutis, are extremely vascular, whence the pink colour of that part of the nail which is in contact with the nail-bed.

The nail-bed receives many nerve-fibres. The deeper of these end in Pacinian corpuscles, while others ramify in the ridges of the cutis, and some penetrate among the epithelium-cells of the Malpighian layer.

The growth of the nail is usually estimated at about 0.1 mm. *per diem* ; it is accelerated in warm weather and often considerably retarded by illness.

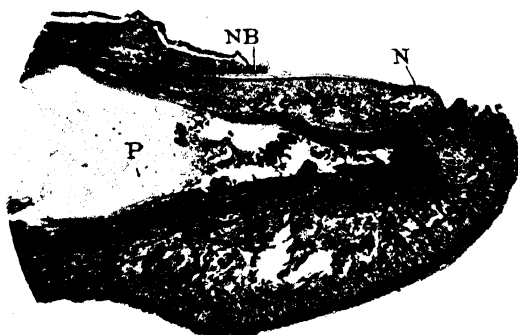


FIG. 340.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION THROUGH END OF DECALCIFIED FINGER OF A FULL-TIME HUMAN FETUS. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 11$.

N, nail ; NB, nail-bed ; P, terminal phalanx, ossified at its distal end.

Arterio-venous anastomoses of a special type are found in the foot and the hand and exist in great numbers in the digits—especially beneath the nails. The histology of such anastomoses has been studied by P. Masson. The artery breaks up into two or more branches : of these, *one* supplies the capillary system in the usual manner ; the *other* or *others* (there may be as many as six) form a short, thick-walled segment opening into the vein by a funnel-shaped junction. This segment between the artery and the vein is surrounded by a specialised type of smooth muscle-cell ; it is also richly supplied with myelinate and amyelinate nerve-fibres.

It would appear (R. T. Grant and E. F. Bland) that the reaction of the extremities to cold by increased blood-flow is largely due to the opening up of these anastomoses.

DEVELOPMENT.

The nails show in the fœtus at about the third month, a groove being formed at this time in the corium, and the nail-rudiment appearing in it as a development of onychogenic substance in some of the cells of the epithelium which lies over the bed (fig. 341). The nail becomes free in the sixth month, its end being

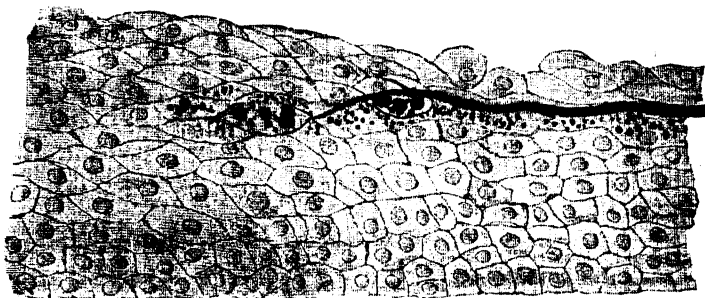


FIG. 341.—FIRST APPEARANCE OF NAIL SUBSTANCE IN THE FORM OF GRANULES OF ONYCHOGENIC MATERIAL IN SOME OF THE CELLS COVERING THE NAIL-BED. (Kölliker.)

at first thin; but as it grows forward over the bed it receives additions on its under surface, so that after a time the distal end becomes thicker. The epitrichial layer of the cuticle which originally covered the developing nail becomes detached after the fifth month; all that represents it afterwards being the narrow border of cuticle, the *eponychium*, which overlies the root.

HAIRS.

The **hairs** are growths of the epidermis, developed in deep pits—the *hair-follicles*—which extend downwards into the thickness of the cutis vera, and even in the subcutaneous tissue (fig. 342). The hair grows from the bottom of the follicle, the part which lies within the follicle being known as the *root*.

Structure of hair.—The substance of a hair is mainly composed of a pigmented, horny, *fibrous material* (fig. 343, *f*), which can be separated by the action of sulphuric acid into long tapering fibrillated cells, the nuclei of which are still visible. The fibrous substance of the hair is covered by a layer of delicate imbricated scales, termed the *hair-cuticle* (*c*). In many hairs, but not in all, the centre is occupied by an axial substance (*medulla*, *m*), formed of angular cells which contain granules of eleidin, and frequently have a dark appearance from the presence of minute air-bubbles. The latter may also occur in interstices in the fibrous substance. When air is present, the hair looks dark by transmitted, white by reflected, light; but when a dark appearance is due to pigment, the hair looks dark by both transmitted and reflected light. Hair, however, may appear white by reflected light and yet contain pigment if the medulla contains much air. The *root* has the same structure as the body of the hair, except at its deep extremity, which is enlarged to form the *hair-bulb*; this enlargement is composed mainly of

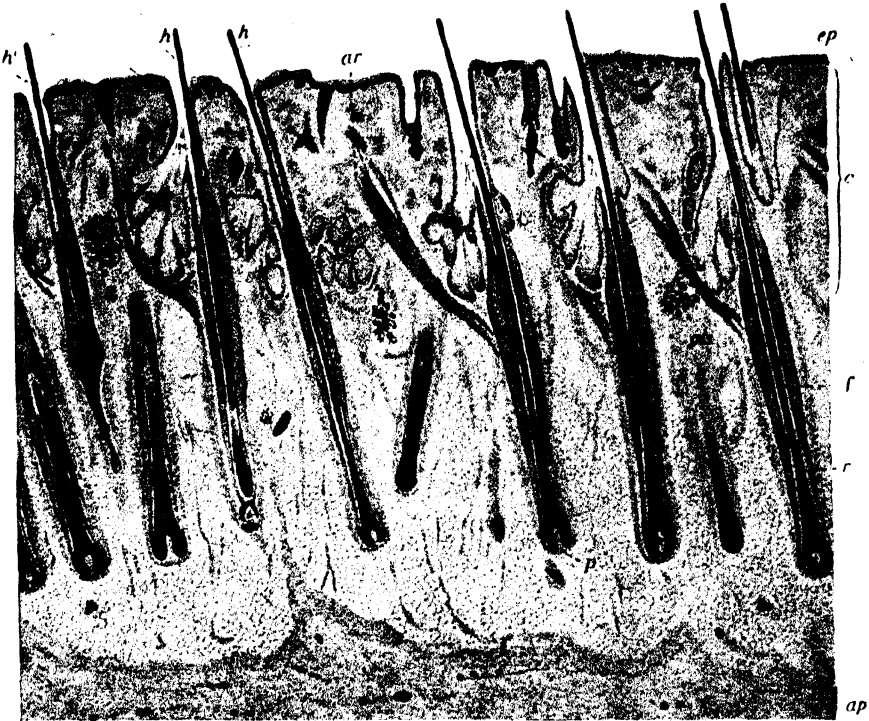


FIG. 342.—SECTION OF HUMAN SCALP. (Sobotta.) $\times 14$.

h, *h*, ordinary or bulb-hairs; *h*, club-hair; *ar*, arrector pili muscle; *f*, hair-follicle; *r*, root of hair; *p*, papilla; *ep*, epidermis; *c*, cutis vera; *ap*, aponeurosis below subcutaneous tissue; *gls*, sweat glands; *seb*, sebaceous glands.

soft growing cells, and fits over a vascular *papilla*, which projects up into the bottom of the follicle.

The diameter of human hairs is very variable; those of the beard are the thickest and may attain $200\ \mu$, while the finest (lanugo) hairs are often only $5\ \mu$ in diameter.

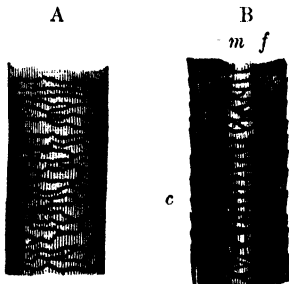


FIG. 343.—SEGMENT OF HUMAN HAIR. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Magnified.

A, seen from the surface; B, in optical section; *c*, cuticle; *f*, fibrous substance; *m*, medulla, the air having been expelled by Canada balsam.

The lanugo hairs and the hairs which immediately succeed them (primary hairs) have no medulla. Some hairs which are found throughout life are also destitute of medulla. These are termed 'non-medullary' or 'lanugo' hairs.

Structure of hair-follicle (figs. 344 to 346).—The follicle, like the skin itself, of which it is a recess, is composed of two parts: one epithelial, the other connective tissue. The epithelial or epidermic part of the follicle closely invests the hair-root, and is often dragged out with it; hence it is

known as the *root-sheath*. It consists of an outer layer of soft columnar and polyhedral cells, like the Malpighian layer of the epidermis, but without stratum granulosum—the *outer root-sheath*; and of an inner, thinner, horny stratum next to the hair—the *inner root-sheath*. The inner root-sheath itself consists of three layers, the outermost being composed of horny, fibril-

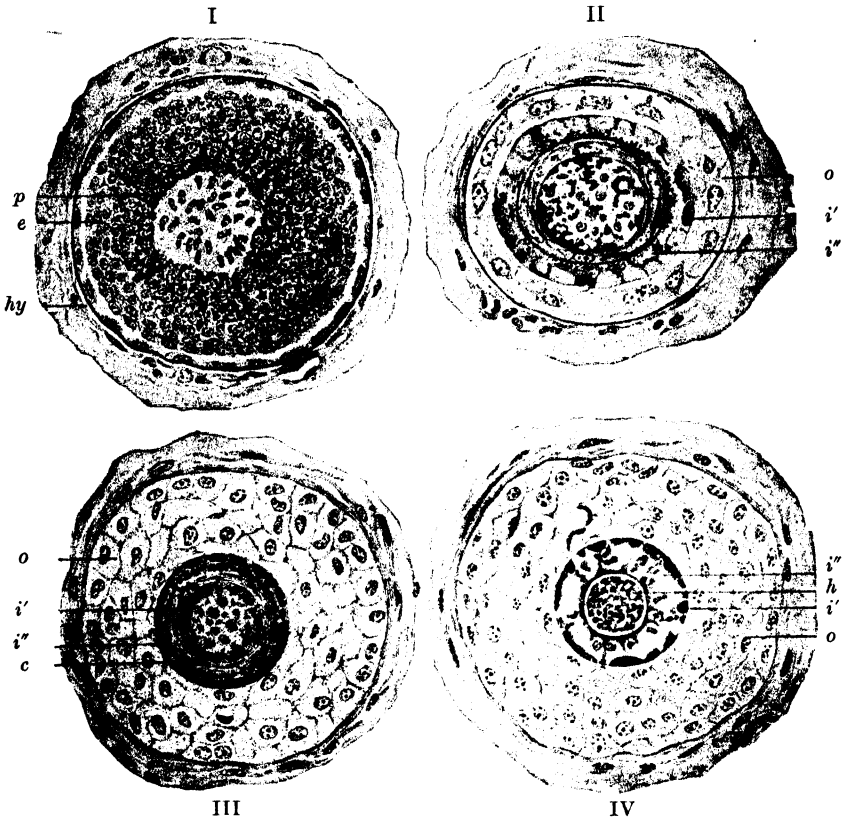


FIG. 344.—SECTIONS ACROSS HAIR-FOLLICLES FROM THE SCALP OF AN INFANT.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

I. Through papilla. II. Just above papilla. III. About middle of follicle. IV. Near orifice of follicle.
In I:—*p*, papilla; *e*, epithelium surrounding papilla, with pigment in cells; *hy*, hyaline layer of dermic coat with thin outer root-sheath just within it. In II, III, IV:—*o*, outer root-sheath; *i'*, layer of Henle, and *i''*, layer of Huxley of the inner root-sheath; *c*, cuticle of root-sheath; *h*, hair.

lated, oblong cells the nuclei of which are obscure (*Henle's layer*), the next of polyhedral nucleated cells containing eleidin (*Huxley's layer*), and the third—the *cuticle of the root-sheath*—a layer of downwardly imbricated scales, which fit over the upwardly imbricated scales of the hair itself. In the more superficial part of the hair-follicle the layers of Huxley and Henle are indistinguishable, the cells of both being clear and keratinised; lower down where distinguishable they show a tendency to dovetail into one another. At the bottom of the follicle no differentiation into layers can be made out in the

root-sheath, which is here formed by a uniform mass of soft cells capping and enveloping the papilla.

In the greater extent of the follicle the outer root-sheath is several layers

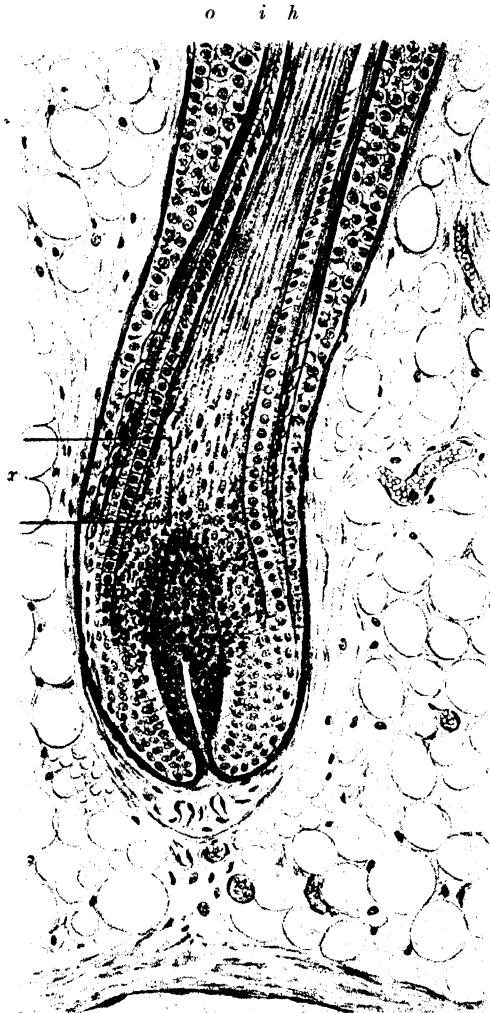


FIG. 345.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF A HAIR FOLLICLE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 200.

o, outer root-sheath; *i*, inner root-sheath; *h*, hair; *x*, part shown magnified in fig. 346. The follicle is embedded in the panniculus adiposus.

thick, but as the bottom of the follicle is approached it becomes thinner, and is finally reduced to a single stratum of cells which, in the papillary part, becomes flattened out into a very thin layer (fig. 344, I).

The connective tissue or dermic part of the hair-follicle is composed

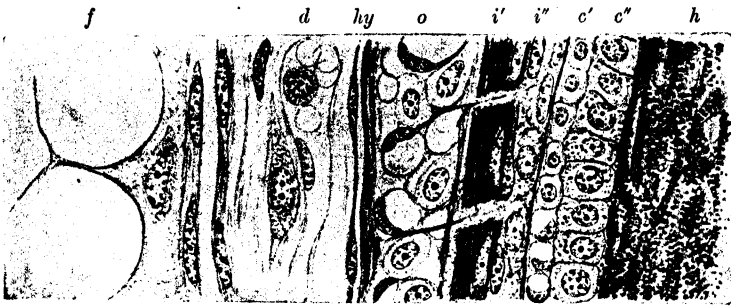


FIG. 346.—A SMALL PORTION OF THE SECTION SHOWN IN FIG. 345 ENLARGED TO EXHIBIT THE STRUCTURE OF THE SEVERAL LAYERS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

h, hair; *c''*, its cuticle; *c'*, cuticle of root-sheath; *i''*, Huxley's layer; *i'*, Henle's layer; *o*, outer root-sheath; *hy*, hyaline layer; *d*, dermic coat; *f*, fat-cells.



FIG. 347.—NERVES OF HAIR-FOLLICLE AND ADJACENT CUTANEOUS STRUCTURES: MOUSE. (J. F. Tello.)

N, branch of nerve sending fibres to terminate around the mouth of the follicle at *A*, and others (at *B* and *C*) to form palisade-like and annular endings around the lower part of the follicle; *a*, horny layer of epidermis; *b*, Malpighian layer; *S*, *S*, sebaceous glands; *P*, *P*, roots of hairs.

internally of a *vascular layer*, which is separated from the root-sheath by a basement-membrane termed the *hyaline layer* of the follicle. The vascular layer corresponds to the superficial layer of the cutis vera. Its fibres and cells have a regular circular arrangement around the follicle, the cells being flattened against the hyaline layer. Externally the dermic coat of the follicle has a more open texture, corresponding to the deeper part of the cutis, and contains the larger branches of the arteries and veins. In the large tactile hairs, *vibrissae* or whiskers, of animals the veins near the bottom of the follicle are dilated into sinuses, forming a kind of erectile structure.

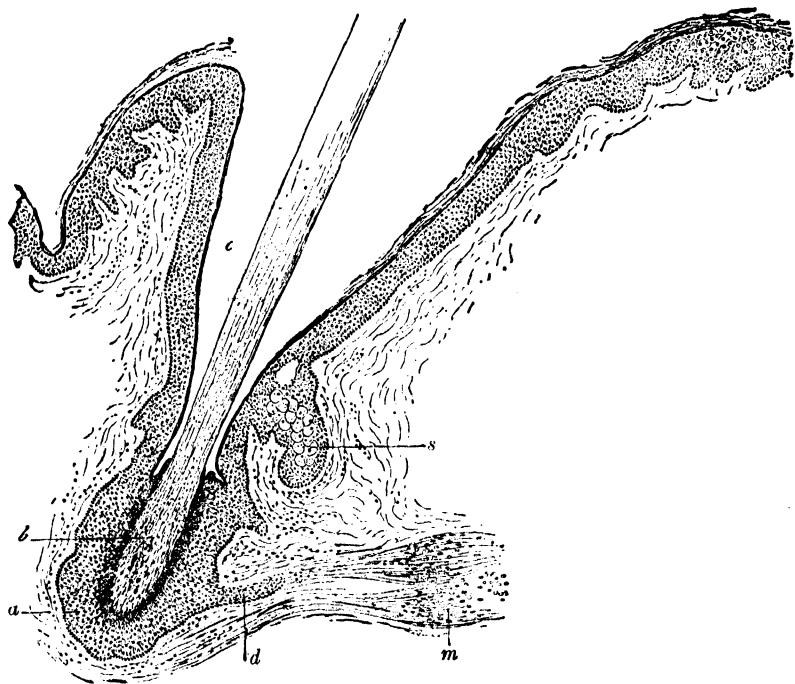


FIG. 348.—SECTION THROUGH FOLLICLE OF A CLUB-HAIR. (Ranvier.)

a, epithelium at bottom of follicle (which has no papilla); *b*, bulbous portion of hair; *c*, neck of hair-follicle somewhat opened in preparing the section; *s*, sebaceous gland; *d*, epithelial projection at attachment of arrector pili; *m*, arrector pili.

The hair-follicle receives nerve-fibres which pass into the papilla, and others which enter the root-sheath. These are derived from the nerves of the corium and form ring-like arborisations in the upper part of the hair-follicle; while below the rings there is usually a sheaf of vertical palisade-like endings (fig. 347). The terminations between the cells of the outer root-sheath may take the form of tactile disks. Nerves are especially well developed in connexion with the whiskers of animals.

The hair grows from the bottom of the follicle by multiplication of the soft cells which cover the papilla, these cells becoming elongated and pigmented to form the fibres of the fibrous substance, and otherwise modified to produce the medulla (when present) and cuticle of the hair and the several

layers of the root-sheath. The cells which form the medulla of the hair and the inner root-sheath are filled with granules of eleidin, but those which form the fibrous substance and cuticle of the hair have granules which stain brown with carmine, and appear similar to the granules in the corresponding cells of the nail-matrix (Ranvier).

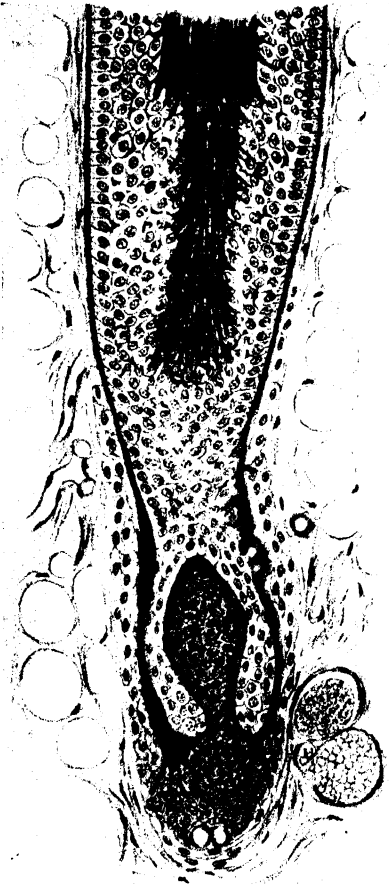


FIG. 349. — LONGITUDINAL SECTION THROUGH THE FOLLICLE OF A HAIR WHICH HAS CEASED TO GROW AND THE ROOT OF WHICH IS UNDERGOING ABSORPTION. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$.

Besides the hairs which have been described, and which are provided with a vascular papilla, from the cells covering which the hair and its inner root-sheath grow (*growing* or *bulb-hairs*, *papillated hairs*), there are other hairs unprovided with a papilla and the follicle of which ceases at the level of attachment of the arrector pili muscle (*non-growing* or *club-hairs*, *non-papillated hairs*, figs. 342, 348). These are hairs which have become detached from their papilla and have ceased to grow; they are more easily pulled out than the growing hairs, and after a time tend to fall out spontaneously. In their follicles the whole of the lower part of the hair, including the original papilla and the soft growing cells which cover it, may entirely disappear, the hair being now attached at its sides and below to the root-sheath (fig. 348). A hair which has thus ceased to grow is eventually lost, but its place is presently supplied by a new hair, which becomes developed in a downgrowth from the old follicle, a new papilla being formed at the extremity of the downgrowth (figs. 349, 350). If not previously detached, the old hair drops out from the follicle as the new one grows up to replace it.

The detachment of the non-papillated hairs is preceded by an absorption of the root of the hair and of the investing inner root-sheath. This absorption

appears to be effected by the cells of the outer sheath, which multiply at the expense of the keratinised parts of the hair-root and undermine its attachment to the follicle (fig. 349). The root of such a hair when pulled out is of less diameter than the shaft.

Human hairs grow at the rate of about 2 mm. a day (Bulliard). When a hair is pulled out, the new hair is not apparent at the surface for some weeks after. During

this period active karyokinesis occurs among the cells at the bottom of the follicle some of which gradually arrange themselves to produce the new hair.

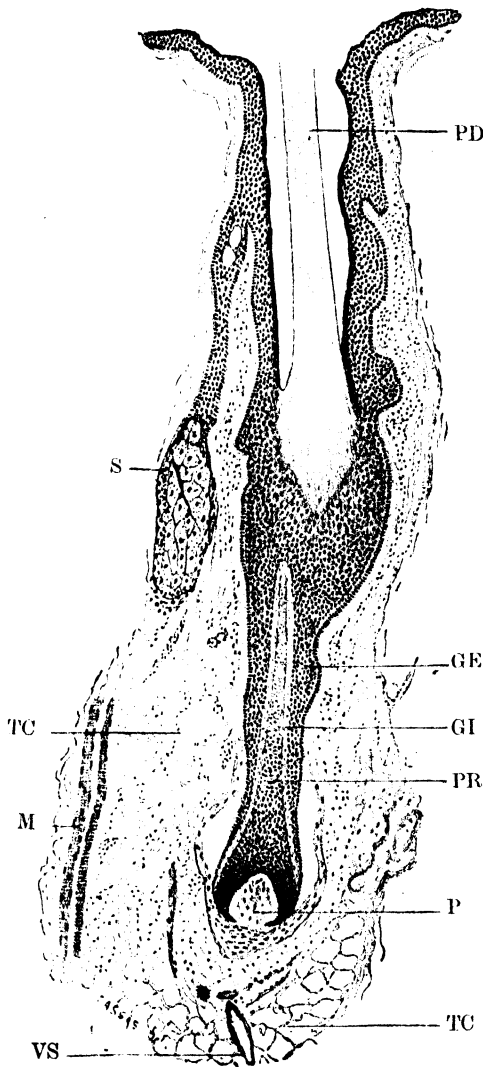


FIG. 350.—OLD HAIR IN PROCESS OF REPLACEMENT BY NEW HAIR AT BASE OF FOLLICLE. (After Bouin and Branca).

PD, old hair; PR, new hair with its papilla, P; GE and GI, external and internal root sheaths; VS, small blood-vessel; S, sebaceous gland; TC, connective tissue of scalp; M, muscle.

Hair that has been recently cut may be identified by the straight and usually finely serrated end; after fourteen days the frayed edge is straight and smooth, while, in about a month, the distal end is rounded. Uncut hair, on the other hand, has a fine, filiform end. The above points are of medico-legal importance.

Hairs are found all over the body except on the palms of the hands and the soles of the feet (including the fingers and toes), the dorsal surface of the distal phalanges of the fingers and toes, the glans penis and some other parts of the external sex-organs. They usually slant. In the negroid races the hair-follicles are even considerably curved and the hairs are oval or flattened in section. In other races differences also occur both in their shape in section and in size, the straight-haired races usually having the thickest hairs. On the scalp the hairs are set in groups, as is seen in a horizontal section, being most numerous here (200 to 300 per square centimetre).

On the side to which the hair slopes a small patch of thickened epidermis is usually to be found, developed over an enlarged papilla of the cutis vera: while on the opposite side of the hair is a flat area of skin with thickened scale-like epidermis, which may represent a vestige of the reptilian scale (Pinkus). The hair-rudiments when they first appear (as at *a*, fig. 351) are singularly like certain tactile patches

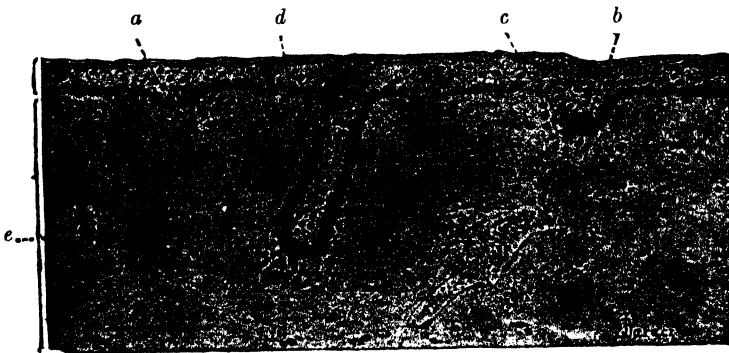


FIG. 351.—HAIR-RUDIMENTS IN A SECTION OF THE SCALP OF A HUMAN FŒTUS.
(Szymonowicz.) $\times 230$.

a, commencing downgrowth of epidermis; *b*, further stage of downgrowth; *c*, connective-tissue cells beginning to accumulate to produce the dermic coat of the follicle; *d*, hair-follicle more advanced in development; *e*, section of a blood-vessel.

which are found in the skin of amphibia and some reptiles, and it is possible that hairs have become developed phylogenetically from these patches.

It is well known that the tactile sensibility of many parts of the skin is intimately associated with the hairs, although parts devoid of hairs also have a highly developed sense of touch.

Muscles of the hairs.—A small muscle composed of bundles of plain muscular tissue is attached to each hair-follicle (*arrector pili*, fig. 342, *ar*); it passes from the superficial part of the corium, on the side to which the hair slopes, obliquely downwards, to be attached near the bottom of the follicle to a projection formed by a localised hypertrophy of the outer root-sheath. When the muscle contracts, the hair becomes more erect, and the follicle is dragged upwards so as to cause a prominence on the general surface of the skin, while the part of the corium from which the little muscle arises is correspondingly depressed; the roughened condition known as 'goose skin' being in this way produced. There is always a sebaceous gland in the triangle formed between the arrector pili and its points of attachment to the hair-follicle and the epidermis, so that the contraction of the arrector

generally causes the secretion of the gland to be extruded. These small muscles are supplied by nerve-fibres derived from the sympathetic.

DEVELOPMENT.

The hairs are originally developed in the embryo as small solid downgrowths from the Malpighian layer of the epidermis (fig. 351). The hair-rudiment, which gives rise not only to the hair proper but also to the epithelium-cells of the hair-follicle, is at first composed entirely of soft growing cells, the outermost and deepest having a columnar shape; but presently those in the centre become differentiated, so as to produce a minute hair invested by the inner root-sheath, its base resting upon a papilla which has become enclosed by the extremity of the hair-germ and which is formed by the connective tissue of the cutis (fig. 352). As the minute hair grows, it pushes its way through the layers of the epidermis, which it finally perforates, the epithrichial layer being thrown off. During the whole process the follicle is growing more deeply into the cutis vera, carrying the papilla down with it.

The hair-rudiments begin to appear at the third or fourth month of fetal life; their growth is completed about the fifth or sixth month, and the fine hairs which they form constitute the hairy covering termed the *lanugo*. This is shed within a few months of birth, the new hairs being formed in downgrowths from the old hair-follicles in the manner already mentioned.

GLANDS OF THE SKIN.

Sebaceous glands (fig. 353) are small saccular glands, the ducts of which open into the mouths of the hair-follicles. They are also found in a few situations which are devoid of hairs (such as the margin of the lips, the external auditory meatus and parts of the external sex-organs). The Meibomian glands of the eye-lid are modified sebaceous glands. Both the duct and the sacculles are lined, and sometimes filled, by epithelium-cells which become charged with fatty matter.

There may be two or more sebaceous glands attached to each hair-follicle. The mode of secretion is remarkable: the secretory product is formed by the actual disintegration of the epithelium-cells themselves, on which account they are termed *holocrine glands*. In the mammary and apocrine glands

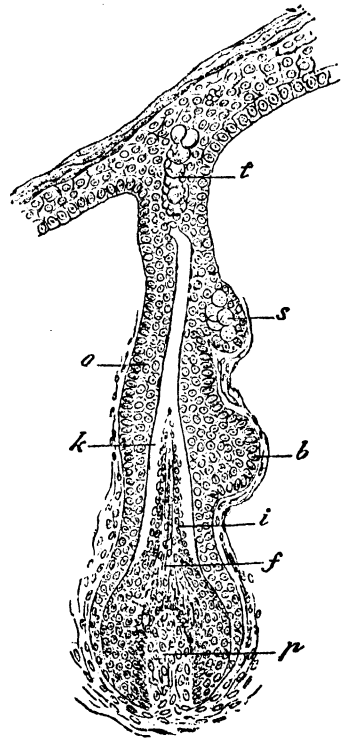


FIG. 352.—DEVELOPING HAIR FROM HUMAN EMBRYO OF FOUR AND A HALF MONTHS. (Ranvier.)

p, papilla; *f*, hair-rudiment; *i*, cells from which the inner root-sheath is becoming formed; *k*, keratinised part of inner root-sheath, uncoloured by carmine; *o*, outer root-sheath; *b*, epithelial projection for insertion of arrector pili; *s*, sebaceous gland; *t*, sebaceous transformation of cells in the part which will become the neck of the follicle. This forms a channel for the passage of the hair-point through the Malpighian layer.

(see below), only the free ends of the cells dehisce ; such glands are therefore known as *merocrine glands*.

The sebaceous glands are developed as outgrowths from the outer root-sheaths of the hairs (fig. 352, s).

Sweat glands are abundant over the whole skin, but are most numerous on the palm of the hand and on the sole of the foot. They are composed of coiled tubes, which lie in the deeper part of the integument and send



FIG. 353.—SEBACEOUS GLAND. (P. Bouin.) $\times 170$. NOTE THE LARGE VACUOLATED GLAND CELLS.

(By permission of Librairie Félix Alcan, Paris.)

their ducts up through the cutis to open on the surface by corkscrew-like channels in the epidermis (figs. 334 and 354).

The *secreting part of the gland* is formed of a convoluted tube composed of a basement-membrane lined by a single layer of cubical or columnar epithelium-cells, and with a layer of longitudinally or obliquely disposed plain muscle-fibres between the epithelium and basement-membrane. The secreting tube is considerably larger than the duct ; which begins within the gland and usually makes several convolutions before leaving the gland to traverse the cutis vera. The duct has an epithelium consisting of two or three layers of cells, within which is a well-marked cuticular lining ; there

is no muscular coat. The passage through the epidermis has no proper wall, but is merely a channel excavated between the epithelium-cells.

The **apocrine glands** are very large sweat glands occurring in the axilla and round the anus. In these secretion is effected by the disintegration of the free ends of the cells, which project into the lumen of the alveolus. In type they are intermediate between the smaller sweat and the sebaceous glands, resembling the mammary gland in the mode of secretion.

The sweat glands receive nerve-fibres, and each gland has a special cluster of capillary blood-vessels.

The **ceruminous glands of the ear** are also modified sweat glands, but the secretion is of a fatty nature, instead of being watery like that of the ordinary



FIG. 354.—SCHEMATIC SECTION OF A SWEAT GLAND: MAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

a, a, secreting tube in section; *b*, a coil seen from above; *c, c*, efferent duct; *d*, intertubular connective tissue with blood-vessels.

sweat glands. Closely associated with the ceruminous glands are large sebaceous glands.

DEVELOPMENT.

The sweat glands are developed, like the hairs, as downgrowths of the Malpighian layer of the epidermis into the corium. They are distinguishable from the hair-rudiments by the fact that the cells of the outermost layer are not columnar in shape, but spheroidal or polyhedral. The sweat-gland rudiments which are thus formed become eventually coiled up at their extremities and converted into hollow tubes. The muscular fibres of the tubes are peculiar in that they are derived from the ectoderm.

THE MAMMARY GLANDS.

The **mammary glands** are large compound racemose glands serving for the secretion of milk. Each mamma actually represents a group of glands, which open by numerous ducts upon the apex of the nipple. Each duct is dilated

into a small reservoir, the *sinus lactiferus*, just before reaching the nipple. The nipple contains a considerable amount of plain muscular tissue, lying

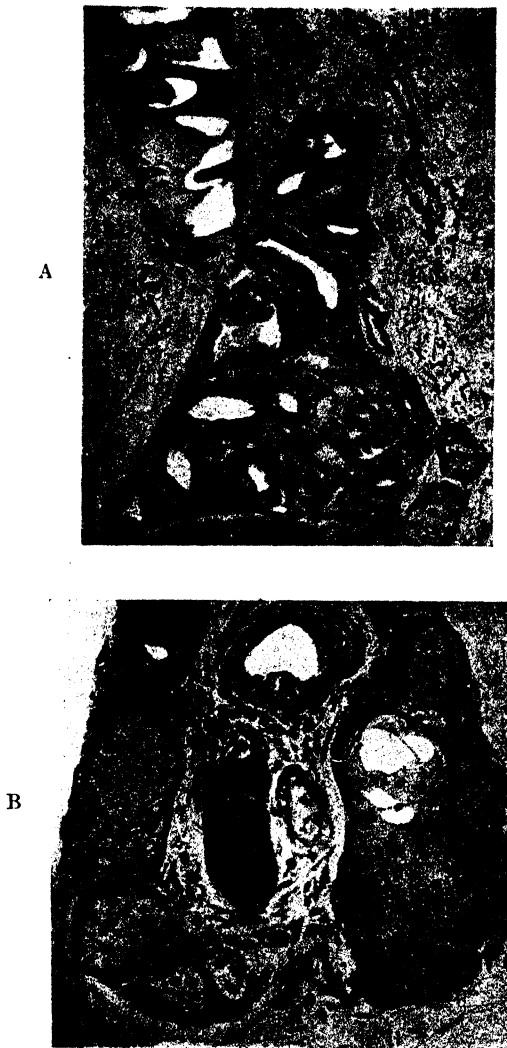


FIG. 355.—CERUMINOUS GLANDS OF THE EXTERNAL EAR: HUMAN.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer). Photographs.

A. Section of a ceruminous gland. The duct has a spiral course and is therefore cut several times; it is partly filled with cerumen.

B. Section of duct of a ceruminous gland accompanied by the secreting tubules of large sebaceous glands.

between and around the ducts. Traced backwards, the ducts are found to commence in groups of saccular alveoli (fig. 357), the walls of which are lined

by a single layer of epithelium which is columnar when the milk is being produced within the cells, but becomes flattened out as it is discharged and fills the alveolus. Milk globules may be seen forming within the columnar cells and also lying free within the alveoli (fig. 358). The distal part of each cell disintegrates during lactation, the nucleus and the rest of the cytoplasm remaining attached to the wall of the alveolus. The contrast between alveoli



FIG. 356.—VERTICAL SECTION OF NIPPLE AND A SMALL PART OF ACTIVE MAMMARY GLAND. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 10$.

e, epidermis; *l.d.*, lactiferous duct with its proximal dilatation, the sinus lactiferus, *s.l.* *s.*, septum of collagen tissue between lobules (*l*) of the gland.

The coagulum in the ducts represents the protein of the milk after precipitation by the fixative. The detachment of the squamous layer of the epidermis in the upper part of the figure is an artefact.

distended with milk and those which have been emptied of the secretion is striking (fig. 357). The emptying is brought about by contraction of plain muscle-cells in the alveolus lying just inside the basement-membrane (as in the sweat glands). The muscle is stimulated to contract by intravenous injection of pituitrin.

At the commencement of lactation large phagocytic cells containing fat-particles appear in the secretion, the *colostrum corpuscles*. These are either



FIG. 357.—SECTION OF TWO ADJACENT ALVEOLI IN MAMMARY GLAND OF LACTATING CAT, ONE OF WHICH IS FULL OF MILK, WHILE THE OTHER HAS BEEN EMPTIED OF ITS SECRETION. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 50$. Photograph.

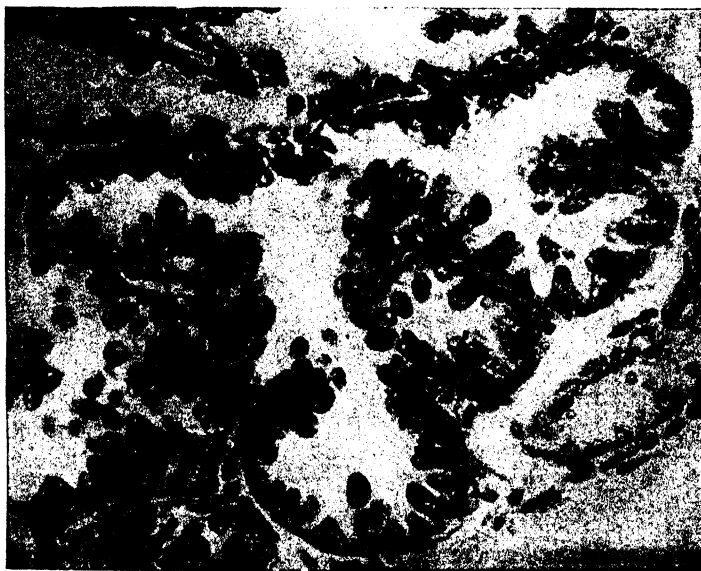


FIG. 358.—ALVEOLI OF MAMMARY GLAND OF LACTATING CAT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 400$. Photograph.

detached portions of the secreting epithelium-cells or, as some believe, leucocytes. Recent work (Bratianu and Guerriero) indicates that these corpuscles are derived from the epithelium. In the resting gland in the human female there is a large amount of dense fibrous or adipose tissue between the groups of acini, but in most mammals the whole organ is mainly formed of the secreting alveoli.

Vessels and nerves.—The blood is distributed to a capillary network which surrounds the alveoli. There are numerous lymphatics within the gland ;

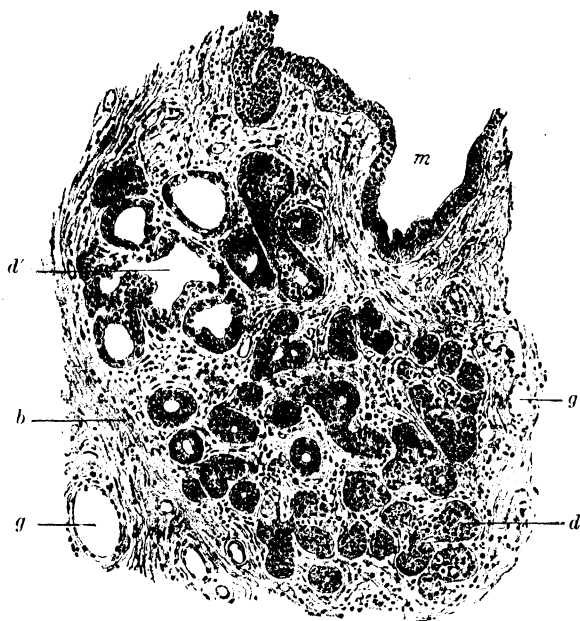


FIG. 359.—SECTION SHOWING DEVELOPING ALVEOLI IN LACTATING HUMAN MAMMARY GLAND. (v. Ebner.) $\times 110$.

m, part of a large duct ; *d*, undeveloped alveoli ; *d'*, partially developed alveoli ; *g*, *g*, blood-vessels ; *b*, connective tissue of gland.

most of these, in man, carry their lymph to the axillary lymph-glands. The mammary glands also receive many nerves, mainly from the intercostals, but these do not appear directly to influence the outpouring of the secretion.

DEVELOPMENT.

The mammary glands are developed in the same manner as the sweat glands, excepting that the secreting part does not become convoluted and tubular. In the virgin mamma they show very few and small groups of alveoli, scattered in abundant, thick connective tissue, but as pregnancy advances the gland-ducts bud out extensively, and many more alveoli are formed and undergo enlargement, until the greater part of the connective tissue in the mammary region is permeated by them. In most animals the whole mamma becomes occupied by secreting alveoli during active lactation. In the human subject, however, there are, even during full lacta-

tion, considerable portions of the mamma between the groups of alveoli, composed of connective tissue, generally with a large amount of adipose tissue, and even in sections of the lactating gland alveoli may be seen in various stages of development (fig. 359). After lactation is over the alveoli undergo a process of retrogression.

In the male the mammary gland consists of scanty ducts embedded in dense fibrous tissue. There are no alveoli, but under some circumstances development of glandular tissue and secretion of milk may occur as in the female.

After the gland has ceased to secrete the alveoli atrophy, becoming reduced to mere excrescences on the endings of the ducts; the calibre of the ducts also diminishes. As a consequence the fibrous tissue of the gland becomes very apparent, and this is particularly the case in the human subject.

LESSON XXVI.

THE HEART.

1. IN Susa or formol-fixed sections through the wall of the auricle note the relative thickness of the epicardium, myocardium, and endocardium. Observe the blood-vessels and nerves under the epicardium, often embedded in fat; here and there a ganglion may be seen under this membrane. Notice also the elastic networks under both the epicardium and endocardium. Staining with orcein and Van Gieson differentiates clearly between the elastic, collagen and cardiac muscle fibres. Make a general sketch of such a section.

2. In sections through the wall of the ventricle the same points are to be noticed. A suitable section is a transverse one through both ventricles of a very small mammal (rat or guinea-pig). The muscular fibres are variously cut. In those cut longitudinally, the branching of the fibres and their union both laterally and end-wise may be seen. Notice also that, although the fibres are cross-striated, this is less distinct than in voluntary muscle, and that the nuclei lie in the middle of the fibres. Transverse markings may also be seen passing across the fibres between the nuclei; this is usually taken as indicating a division into cells. The endocardium is thin, especially over the columnæ carneæ.

3. Examine a section through one of the valves of the heart. NOTE: The appearances which are to be studied in §§ 1, 2, and 3 can all be obtained in one preparation, viz., a vertical section including a portion of auricle and ventricle and a flap of the intervening auriculo-ventricular valve.

4. If a portion of endocardium of the sheep's heart is spread out on a slide and examined in Ringer, a network of large beaded fibres may be seen with a low power or even with a lens; they are also seen in sections. These are the fibres of Purkinje; they are formed of large, square-looking cells usually containing two nuclei, and having cross-striated muscular substance at their periphery.

5. Examine sections through the endocardium and inner muscle layers of the sheep's heart, or through one of the columnæ carneæ of the same subject. Fix in Susa. Purkinje fibres are abundant.

Myocardium.—The muscular tissue of the heart (fig. 360) forms the main thickness of the ventricles and also of parts of the auricles. It is composed of a network of fibres formed of transversely striated cells, the structure and histogenesis of which have already been studied (Lesson XVI, p. 151).

In the interstices of the muscular bundles there is a considerable amount of areolar tissue in which run numerous blood-capillaries and lacunar lymphatics.

Epicardium.—The myocardium is covered externally by a layer of serous membrane—the epicardium or cardiac pericardium (fig. 361)—composed, like other serous membranes, of connective tissue and elastic fibres, the latter being most numerous in its deeper parts. Underneath the epicardium run the main blood-vessels, nerves, and lymphatic vessels of the heart embedded in areolar and adipose tissue, this tissue being continuous with that which lies

between the muscular bundles ; the free surface of the membrane is covered by serous endothelium.

Endocardium.—The lining membrane of the cavities of the heart,

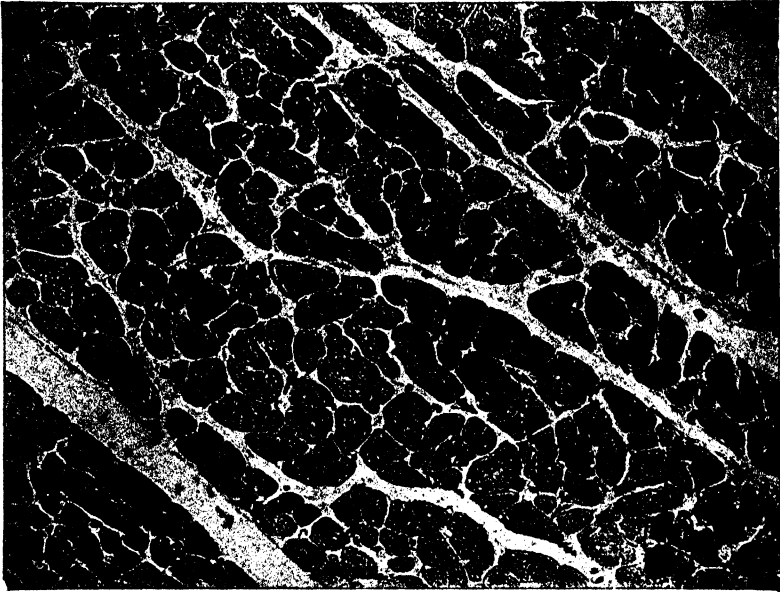


FIG. 360.—SECTION OF MYOCARDIUM. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.

Most of the fibres are cut across. Notice the irregular outlines of the fibres and the manner in which they blend laterally with one another ; the nuclei in the middle of the fibres ; the interstitial connective tissue subdividing the muscular tissue into larger and smaller bundles.

known as the endocardium (figs. 362, 363), has a structure not unlike the epicardium. It is lined by a pavement-epithelium (endothelium), like that of a serous membrane, and consists of connective tissue with elastic fibres in

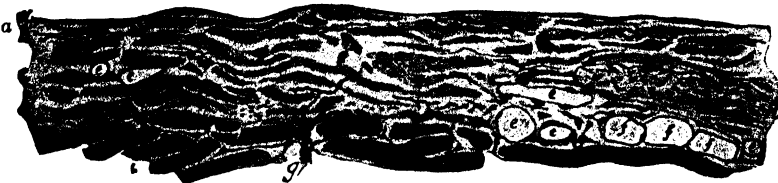


FIG. 361.—EPICARDIUM OVER LEFT VENTRICLE. (G. Mann.)

a, endothelium of serous membrane ; *b*, elastic fibres ; from *a* to *b* is the superficial layer ; *c*, middle layer consisting of fibrous tissue with a few elastic fibres ; *d*, deep layer continuous with the connective tissue of the myocardium (*i*) ; *e*, blood-vessels ; *f*, fat-cells ; *g*, *h*, nerves.

its deeper part, between which there may, in some parts, be found a few plain muscular fibres. Fat is sometimes met with under the endocardium.

Purkinje fibres.—In some animals a network of large beaded trabeculae can be distinctly seen under the endocardium. These are formed of clear cells joined both end to end and laterally, and generally containing in their

centre two nuclei, while the peripheral part of the cell is formed of cross-striated muscular tissue. These fibres are characterised by the fact that they have undergone differentiation into striated muscle at their periphery only, and are especially clear in the sheep's heart. Although best marked in the ventricles, a somewhat similar tissue occurs under the endocardium of the

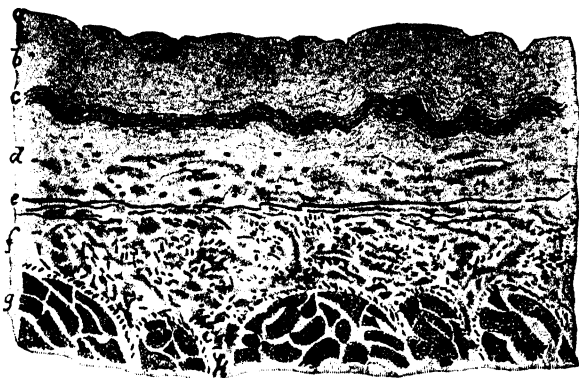


FIG. 362.—ENDOCARDIUM OF RIGHT AURICLE. (G. Mann.)

a, lining endothelium; *b*, fibrous tissue; *c*, elastic tissue; these make up the internal layer: *d*, middle layer; *e*, outer elastic layer; *f*, connective tissue (with numerous elastic fibres) continuous with that of the myocardium; *g*, *h*, muscle bundles cut transversely.

auricles. In *man* the fibres of Purkinje are not nearly so distinct from the ordinary cardiac muscle as in the sheep, but the innermost muscular fibres of the ventricles are different from the ordinary fibres, usually having more clear protoplasm around the nuclei. The larger size is not a necessary character of the fibres belonging to the Purkinje system, for some are smaller than the ordinary fibres. Transitions exist between Purkinje and

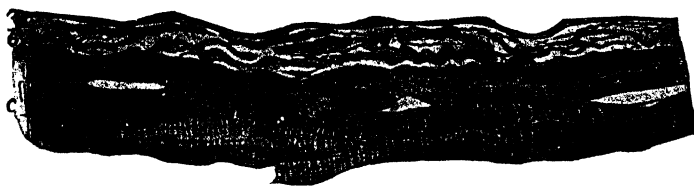


FIG. 363.—ENDOCARDIUM COVERING ONE OF THE COLUMNÆ CARNEÆ OF THE RIGHT VENTRICLE. (G. Mann.)

a, endothelium; *b*, connective tissue with elastic fibres; *c*, muscular fibres of myocardium.

cardiac muscle fibres in regard to size and type of striation. The Purkinje fibres do, however, appear to be the only fibres which, piercing the auriculo ventricular septum, run uninterruptedly from auricle to ventricle.

Muscular connexion between auricles and ventricles.—Muscular fibres, showing less differentiation than the rest of the cardiac muscle, and usually considered to be Purkinje fibres, were first described by Stanley Kent (1892) as affording a bridging connexion in mammals between the muscle of the auricles and that of the ventricles (fig. 364). Such fibres

are for the most part collected into a circumscribed fasciculus known as the *auriculo-ventricular* or *A-V bundle*. This bundle, formed of small parallel



FIG. 364.—TEASED (DISSOCIATED) PREPARATION FROM MONKEY'S HEART SHOWING CHARACTER OF FIBRES CONNECTING AURICLE AND VENTRICLE. (Stanley Kent.)

NOTE: The distance between the fibres is much greater than during life and is due to the effect of the dissociation.)

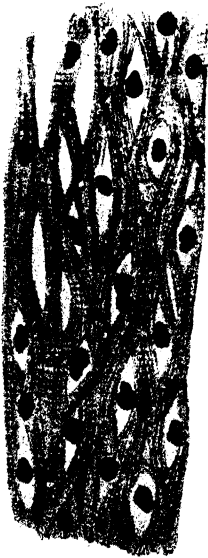


FIG. 365.—FIBRES OF UPPER END OF A-V BUNDLE: DOG. (Tawara.)

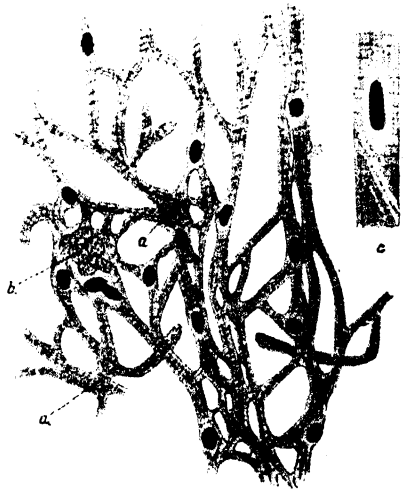


FIG. 366.—NETWORK OF FIBRES FORMING PART OF THE NODE OF TAWARA IN WHICH THE A-V BUNDLE COMMENCES.

a, *a*, junctions of fibres; *b*, fibres cut across; *c*, an ordinary muscle-fibre of the auricle drawn to the same scale.

fibres which intercommunicate (fig. 365), extends from a plexiform mass of very small fibres known as the *node of Tawara* (fig. 366) on the septal wall of

the right auricle, through the fibrous tissue which separates the auricles from the ventricles into the septum between the ventricles. Here it bifurcates; a branch passing to each ventricle. Over the inner surface of the ventricle, underneath the endocardium, the bundle is continuous with the network of special muscular fibres described in the sheep by Purkinje (figs. 367, 368). Of the two main branches of the bundle that to the left ventricle is the larger. The bundle and all its branches are invested by a special connective-tissue sheath which can be injected with coloured fluid: this affords the best means of demonstrating the whole system (Aagard). Besides the extension in the ventricles there is a prolongation of the same



FIG. 367.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF PART OF RIGHT VENTRICLE: DOG—SHOWING THE PURKINJE FIBRES IN WHICH THE FIBRES OF THE A-V BUNDLE END. (Tawara.)
a, endothelium of endocardium.



FIG. 368.—SUB-ENDOCARDIAL FIBRES OF RIGHT VENTRICLE IN WHICH THE FIBRES OF THE A-V BUNDLE TERMINATE: MAN. THESE FIBRES REPRESENT THE PURKINJE FIBRES OF ANIMALS. (Tawara.)
a, a cross-marking (so-called cell junction);
b, sub-endocardial connective tissue.

tissue under the endocardium of the right auricle and in this is found another plexiform mass, the *node of Keith and Flack*, which lies close to the entrance of the superior vena cava and has a special vascular supply. It has been shown by T. Lewis that the heart-beats start from this node.

The auriculo-ventricular bundle serves the purpose of propagating the contractions of the auricles to the ventricles and thus maintaining the regularity of sequence. When the bundle is severed experimentally or by disease this propagation is no longer possible; the ventricles then beat irregularly and with a much slower rhythm than the auricles.

Both the A-V bundle and the node of Keith and Flack contain many

elastic fibres (Rénon and Geraudel). They also have a special vascular supply. Many of the nerve-branches which supply the heart terminate in or near the node of Keith and Flack.

The **valves** of the heart are formed of folds of endocardium strengthened by fibrous tissue (figs. 369, 370). This tissue forms a thickening near the free edge of the valve (fig. 369, *c'*). At the base of the auriculo-ventricular valves the muscular tissue of the auricle may be found passing a short distance into the valves. In the foetus these valves are at first largely muscular.

Nerves are seen underneath the epicardium of both auricles and ventricles and pass into the myocardium; they have small ganglia on their course (fig. 371). The axons of the ganglion-cells pass to the

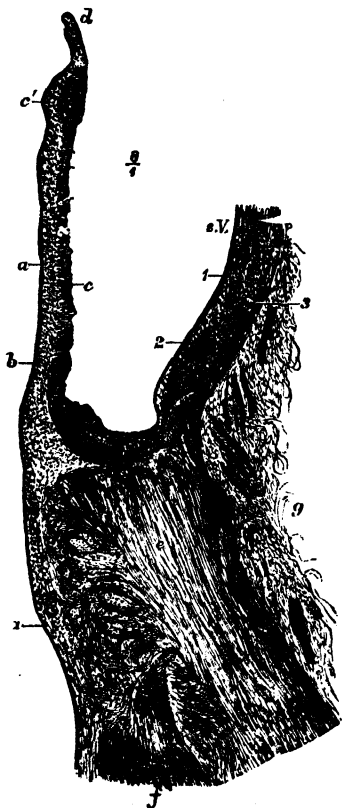


FIG. 369.—SECTION THROUGH ONE OF THE FLAPS OF THE AORTIC VALVE, AND PART OF THE CORRESPONDING SINUS OF VALSALVA, WITH THE ADJOINING PART OF THE VENTRICULAR WALL. (From a drawing by Victor Horsley.)

a, endocardium prolonged over the valve; *b*, sub-endocardial tissue; *c*, fibrous tissue of the valve, thickened at *c'* near the free edge; *d*, section of the lunula; *e*, section of the fibrous ring; *f*, muscular fibres of the ventricle attached to it; *g*, loose areolar tissue at the base of the ventricle; *s.V.*, sinus of Valsalva; 1, 2, 3, inner, middle, and outer coats of the aorta.

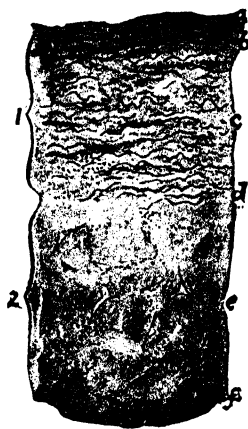


FIG. 370.—SECTION (LONGITUDINAL) OF AORTIC VALVE: HUMAN. (G. Mann.) 1, PART CONTINUOUS WITH ENDOCARDIUM; 2, PART CONTINUOUS WITH AORTIC WALL.

a, endothelium; *b*, elastic layer; *c*, fibrous layer with many elastic fibres; *d*, line of junction of ventricular and aortic portions; *e*, compact fibrous tissue with fine elastic fibres; *f*, endothelium and elastic lamina.

muscular substance and, after dividing into fine fibrils, end in enlarged extremities, applied directly to the muscular fibres (fig. 253, p. 209). Others pass directly to the muscular substance without connexion with ganglion-cells. Afferent nerve-fibres are also abundant under the epicardium. They end in diffuse arborisations and in special terminal organs, like those of

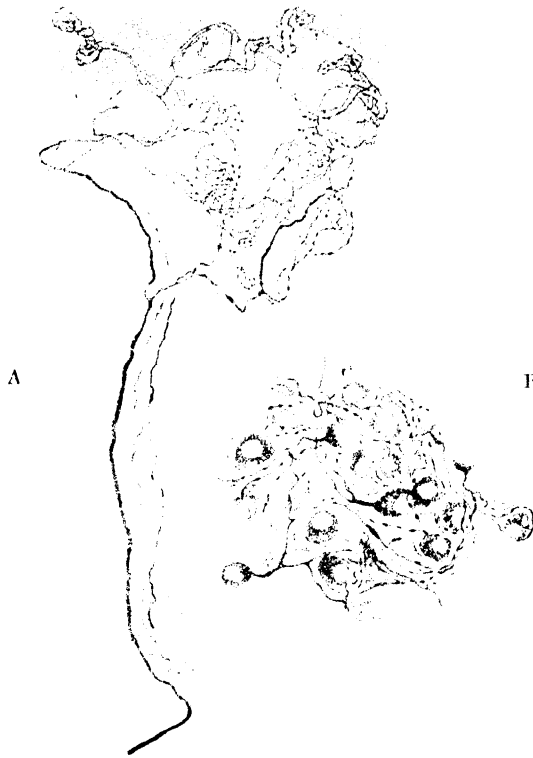


FIG. 371.—A. ENDING OF A MYELINATE NERVE-FIBRE IN A SMALL GANGLION OF THE HEART. THE GANGLION-CELLS ARE NOT REPRESENTED.

B. A SMALL GANGLION FROM THE HEART, SHOWING GANGLION-CELLS AND THEIR PROCESSES. (Dogiel.)

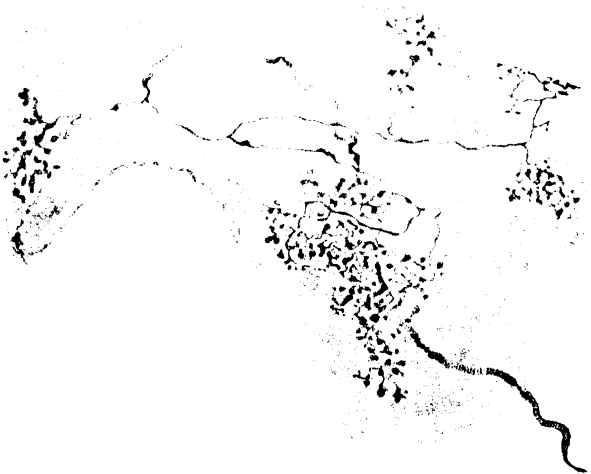


FIG. 372.—TERMINATION OF AN AFFERENT NERVE-FIBRE IN THE ENDOCARDIUM. (Dogiel.)

Golgi-Mazzoni (p. 202). Yet other myelinate nerve-fibres, probably afferent, terminate in complex ramifications in the endocardium (fig. 372). Nerve-fibres also accompany the blood-vessels of the heart and are distributed to their walls.

These *coronary vessels* are abundant, the arteries being relatively large and the capillary network close. The nodes are supplied by special arterioles, but the system of Purkinje fibres is less vascular than the rest of the myocardium. The coronary veins are thin-walled, retaining the capillary structure (endothelium only) in vessels of as much as 0.25 mm. in diameter. The blood-vessels are accompanied by numerous lymph-vessels, which form plexuses under the cardiac pericardium and endocardium. The lymphatics of the myocardium occupy lacunar spaces in the interstitial connective tissue between the muscle-fibres and can be readily demonstrated by injecting coloured fluid into the substance of the myocardium, the fluid then passing from these spaces into the lymph-vessels of the epi- and endo-cardium.

LESSON XXVII.

THE LARYNX, TRACHEA, AND LUNGS.

1. EXAMINE sections of epiglottis fixed in Susa. If from man or monkey the elastic fibres in the cartilage can be exhibited after staining in orcein.

2. In sections of the trachea and larynx fixed (preferably) in Susa or 5 per cent. formol notice the columnar ciliated epithelium, the basement membrane (especially thick in the human trachea and larynx), the lymphoid tissue of the mucous membrane, the elastic tissue external to this, and lastly, the fibrous layer containing the cartilages. In the deeper parts of the mucosa, in which there is much loose areolar tissue, look for sections of small mucous glands, ducts of which may be seen passing to the surface. At the back of the trachea notice the plain muscular fibres, transversely arranged; there are larger mucous glands external to these in some places.

3. In thin sections of lung fixed in Susa or 5 per cent. formol notice the alveoli collected into groups (infundibula or air-sacs). Find sections of bronchial tubes, some cut longitudinally and passing at their extremities into the alveolar passages, others cut across. In each tube notice the ciliated epithelium internally; next to this the mucous membrane containing numerous elastic fibres and often thrown into folds; then the layer of circular muscular fibres, and, outside this, loose fibrous tissue in which, in the larger bronchial tubes, pieces of cartilage may be seen embedded. Small mucous glands may also be observed in the fibrous tissue sending their ducts through the other layers to open on the inner surface. Notice that a branch of the pulmonary artery always accompanies a bronchus, whereas the pulmonary veins take a separate course through the tissue.

In the sections of the alveoli the capillary vessels are cut across or lengthways as the case may be; and in places where the thin wall of an alveolus is seen flat in the section, the close network of blood-capillaries may be observed. In sections stained with orcein the elastic fibres are displayed. Within the alveoli large nucleated cells may here and there be observed with dark particles in their cytoplasm. Similar cells are seen between the alveoli. Make a sketch of part of the wall of one or more bronchial tubes and of one or two of the alveoli.

4. The shape and arrangement of the alveoli are best seen in casts, which can be scraped or squeezed out of slices of a lung moderately distended with carmine-gelatine and kept in 50 per cent. alcohol.

5. In fairly thick sections of fresh lung which has been filled with a mixture of gelatine and silver nitrate solution the epithelium of the alveoli can be studied. The sections are made with the freezing microtome, and mounted in dilute glycerine; the preparation is warmed after the cover-glass is applied in order to melt the gelatine. On exposure to sunlight the silver becomes reduced in the intercellular spaces, thus outlining the epithelium-cells.

6. Mount a moderately thick section of lung injected with carmine gelatine and counterstained with hæmatoxylin. Study the general arrangement of the vessels with a low power, and the network of capillaries of the alveoli with a high power. Sketch the capillary network of one or two adjoining alveoli.

THE EPIGLOTTIS.

Of characteristic shape (fig. 373), the epiglottis is covered on both anterior and posterior surfaces by stratified epithelium. Its core is made up of



FIG. 373.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF EPIGLOTTIS OF CAT. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 15$.
A, anterior surface of epiglottis; P, posterior aspect; C, cartilage, mostly parenchymatous; L, upper part of larynx; T, base of tongue.

cartilage, elastic in type in man, but parenchymatous in many animals. Parenchymatous cartilage is peculiar in that it contains an abundance of cells and very little matrix.

THE TRACHEA AND LARYNX.

The **trachea** or **windpipe** is a fibrous and muscular tube the wall of which is rendered somewhat rigid by C-shaped hoops of hyaline cartilage embedded in the fibrous tissue. The muscular tissue, which is of the plain variety, forms a flat band, the fibres of which run transversely at the back of the tube. The trachea is lined by a *mucous membrane* (fig. 374), with ciliated

epithelium (fig. 375) upon its inner surface. During life the cilia are covered with mucus, which in sections is generally precipitated over them by the



FIG. 374.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF TRACHEA OF CHILD, INCLUDING PORTION OF A CARTILAGINOUS RING AND PART OF THE MUSCLE AT THE BACK OF THE TUBE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 75$.

a, ciliated epithelium; *b*, mucous membrane; *c*, submucous areolar tissue, containing small mucous glands; *d*, cartilage; *e*, fibrous tissue, with (on right of section) the trachealis muscle inserted into it.

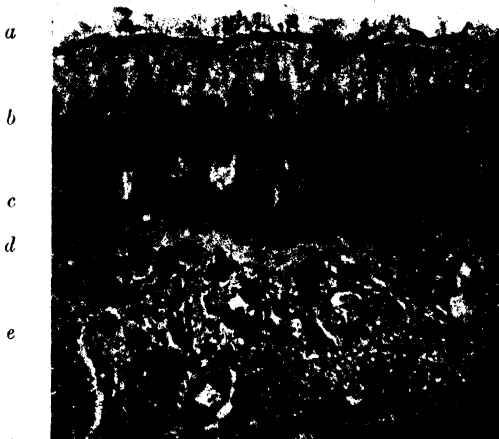


FIG. 375.—CILIATED EPITHELIUM OF TRACHEA: CHILD. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 435$.

a, cilia; *b*, zone of nuclei of ciliated cells; *c*, zone of nuclei of deep-lying cells; *d*, basement-membrane; *e*, superficial part of corium of mucous membrane, showing blood-vessels and elastic fibres cut across. The nuclei belong to connective-tissue cells and leucocytes.

fixative employed. The direction in which the cilia beat is towards the vocal cords; inhaled particles (*e.g.*, dust) are thus largely got rid of, being

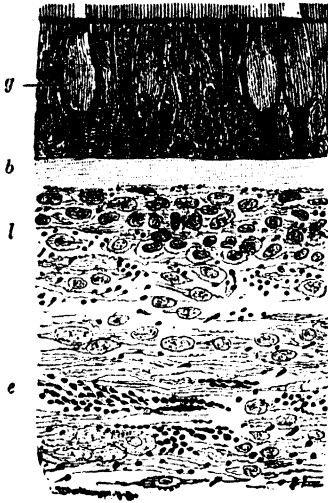


FIG. 376.—MUCOUS MEMBRANE OF LARYNX: MAN. (Merkel.)

g, a goblet-cell among the ciliated epithelium-cells; *b*, basement-membrane; *l*, lymphoid tissue; *e*, elastic fibres, cut across.

bronchial mucosæ causing a great increase in their number. (Florey, Carleton and Wells).

The **larynx** resembles the trachea so far as the structure of the mucous membrane is concerned. It also is lined by ciliated epithelium, but over the true vocal cords and upon the epiglottis, as well as here and there in the part of the larynx just above the glottis, stratified epithelium is found; taste-buds may occur in this epithelium, except over the vocal cords. Numerous nerves end in the epithelium of both the larynx and the epiglottis.

The true vocal cords are composed of fine elastic fibres, and are covered by stratified epithelium.

Lymphoid tissue is especially abundant in the mucous membrane of the ventricle of Morgagni (fig. 377, *d*). A large number of mucous glands open into this cavity and into that of the sacculus which communicates with it.

caught in the mucus and carried towards the glottis. The epithelium-cells, already described (Lesson VIII.), have goblet-cells among them (fig. 376); they are in two layers and rest upon a thick basement-membrane. The corium of the mucous membrane consists of areolar and lymphoid tissue, and contains numerous blood-vessels and lymphatics. In its deepest part is a well-marked layer of longitudinal elastic fibres. Many small glands—mucous and mixed mucous and serous—are found in the wall of the trachea. They may lie either within the mucous membrane or in the submucous areolar tissue, or at the back of the trachea, outside the transverse muscular fibres.

The two main divisions of the trachea, the right and left *bronchi*, are precisely similar in structure to the main tube.

The number of goblet-cells in the bronchial tree is very variable, factors such as moderate irritation of the tracheal or

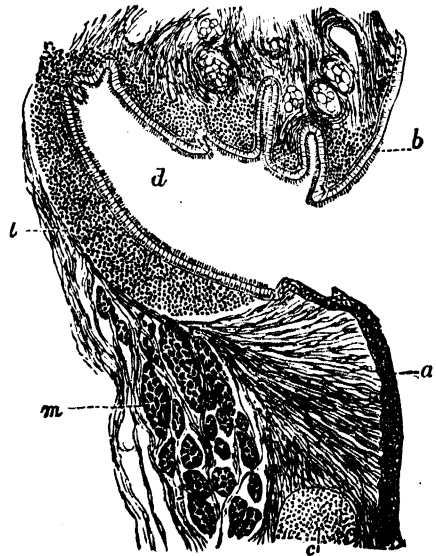


FIG. 377.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION THROUGH THE VENTRICLE OF THE LARYNX OF A CHILD. (Klein.)

a, true vocal cord; *b*, false vocal cord; *c*, nodule of cartilage; *d*, ventricle of Morgagni; *e*, lymphoid tissue; *m*, thyro-arytenoid muscle.

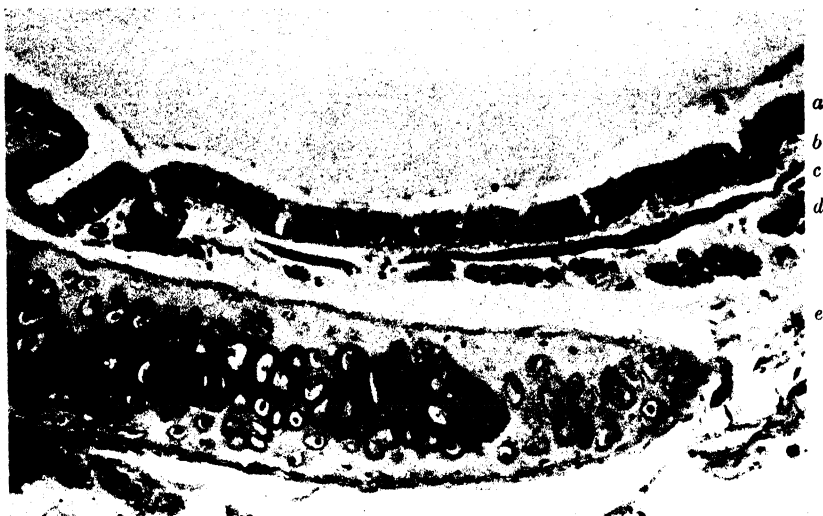


FIG. 378.—SECTION OF PART OF THE WALL OF A LARGE BRONCHUS: CAT.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 150$. Photograph.

a, ciliated epithelium: on the left is the opening of a gland duct; *b*, elastic layer of mucous membrane; *c*, muscular layer; *d*, mucous glands in areolar tissue; *e*, fibrous layer with plate of cartilage.



FIG. 379.—SECTION OF LUNG (DOG) SHOWING A MODERATE-SIZED BRONCHUS WITH THE BRANCH OF THE PULMONARY ARTERY ACCOMPANYING IT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 50$. Photograph.

Some of the adjacent pulmonary tissue is included in the section, and presents a characteristic appearance.

The cartilages of the trachea, as well as the thyroid, cricoid, and arytenoid cartilages of the larynx, are hyaline; all these are liable to ossify as age advances. The cartilages of Santorini and of Wrisberg are composed of elastic fibro-cartilage and do not ossify. The uppermost part of the arytenoid, the tip of the vocal process of the same cartilage, and sometimes the median portion of the thyroid cartilage are also composed of elastic cartilage.

THE LUNGS.

The lungs are formed by the ramifications of the *bronchi* and by their terminal expansions; these last form groups or lobules of sacculated dilata-

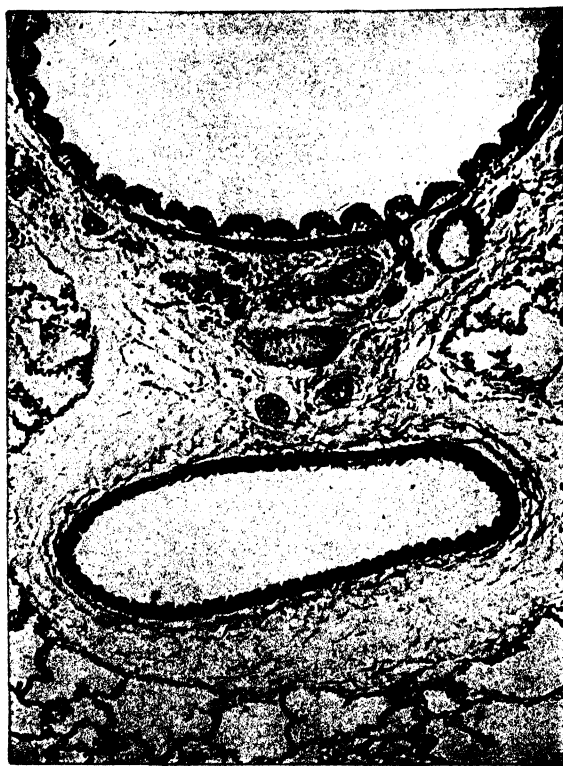


FIG. 380.—PART OF THE SECTION SHOWN IN THE PRECEDING FIGURE.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$.

In the bronchus, the epithelium, the muscular layer, mucous glands and two small pieces of cartilage can be seen. The corrugations of the mucous membrane are caused by post-mortem contraction of the muscular layer.

tions (*air-sacs*, *infundibula*), beset everywhere with small irregularly hemispherical bulgings, known as the *pulmonary alveoli* or *air-cells*.

The **bronchi** (figs. 378 to 381) are lined (except the terminal bronchi) by ciliated epithelium resting on a basement-membrane. External to this is the

corium of the mucous membrane, containing a large number of longitudinal elastic fibres and some lymphoid tissue. Outside this again is a layer of plain muscular fibres encircling the tube. This circular or ring-muscle does not, however, form a continuous sheet but shows gaps between the circular bundles, the gaps being bridged by obliquely running bundles which join with the circular to produce a sort of reticulated layer (W. S. Miller). Next to the muscular layer comes a loose fibrous tissue in which, in the large and medium sized bronchi (figs. 378, 380), plates of cartilage are embedded. Mucous glands are also present in this tissue.

The extremities of the small bronchi expand into passages, the *respiratory bronchioles*, which give off as branches the *alveolar passages*. The walls of



FIG. 381.—SECTION OF A SMALL BRONCHUS (RABBIT). (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 300. Photograph.

The section also shows a respiratory bronchiole (below), an atrium (above and on the left), and several collapsed alveoli. The tissue on the left and below is infiltrated with oedema fluid.

both are beset with alveoli. The alveolar passages lead into irregularly spherical alveolated dilatations, the *atria*, with which a number of blind and often funnel-shaped diverticula completely covered with alveoli communicate; these are the *infundibula* or *air-sacs* (Waters). The arrangement of the parts, according to the investigations of W. S. Miller, is as follows (fig. 382): Two or more *air-sacs*, or groups of *alveoli*, open from a common chamber or *atrium*, and three to six atria are connected with the ending of an *alveolar passage*. The latter lead out of the *respiratory bronchioles*, which are expanded continuations of the smallest bronchi.

The epithelium changes in character as we trace the small bronchi into the *respiratory bronchioles*; from columnar and ciliated it becomes cubical

and non-ciliated, and there are patches of the respiratory epithelium (see below) not only in the alveoli which occur scattered over the respiratory

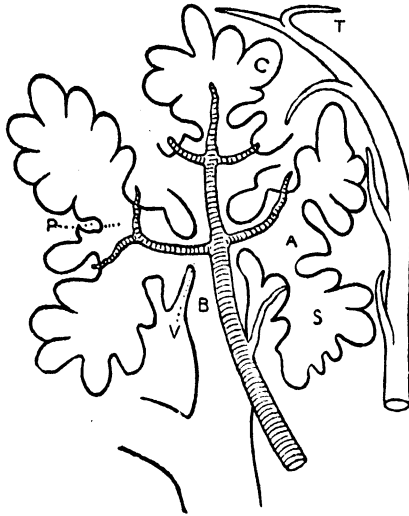


FIG. 382.—DIAGRAM OF THE ENDING OF A BRONCHUS. (W. S. Miller.)

B, terminal bronchiole (alveolar passage); V, vestibule; A, atrium; S, air-sac or infundibulum; C, air-cell or alveolus; P, ending of pulmonary arteriole; T, commencement of pulmonary venule.

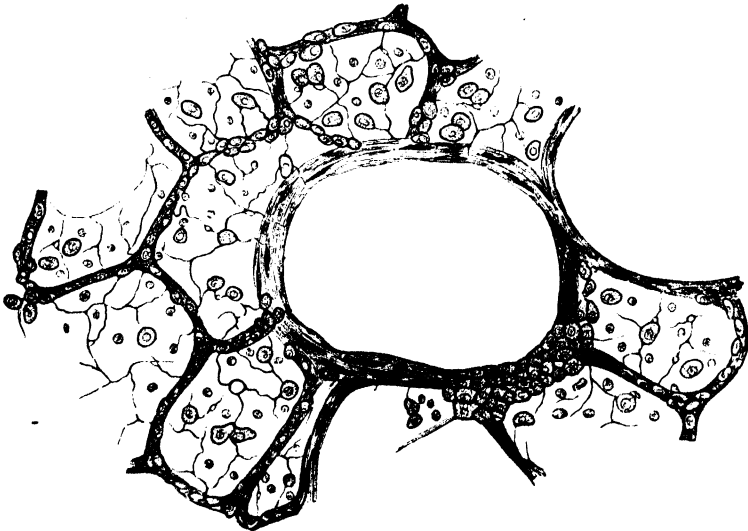


FIG. 383.—THICK SECTION OF PART OF CAT'S LUNG STAINED WITH SILVER NITRATE. (Klein.) Highly magnified.

Both the cubical and large flattened cells of the alveoli are shown. In the middle is a section of an alveolar passage with a patch of cubical epithelium-cells on one side.

bronchioles but also elsewhere in the wall of the latter. The plain muscular tissue of the small bronchi is continued as a distinct layer on the walls of the

respiratory bronchioles, but not on those of the alveolar passages and atria, although some muscle-cells occur round the mouths of the atria and even of the alveoli.



FIG. 384.—SECTION OF THE WALL OF AN ALVEOLUS OF HUMAN LUNG. (W. S. Miller.)
× 500. Photograph.

The lung was slightly oedematous, and the epithelium-cells are separated in places from the tissue of the alveolus with its capillaries and are thus rendered very evident.

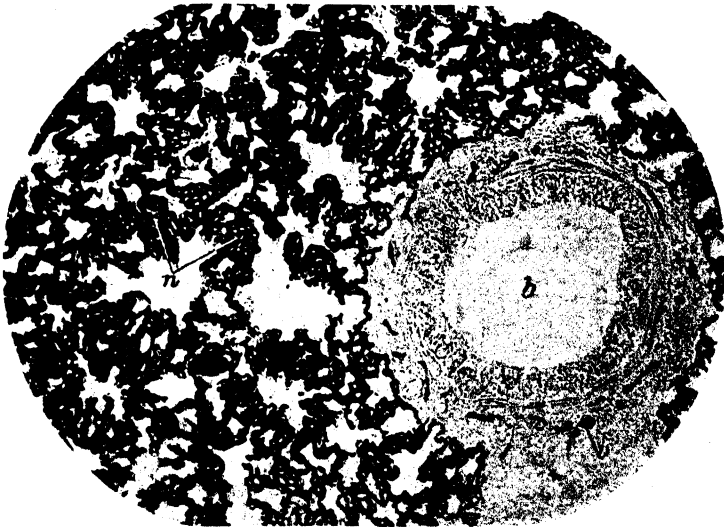


FIG. 385.—CARMINE-GELATINE INJECTION OF LUNG THROUGH PULMONARY ARTERY.
(From a preparation of Sir Charles Sherrington; photograph by E. H. Leach.) × 75.
b, small bronchus, the vessels in its wall being filled with the injection mass; *n*, capillary networks, each over an alveolus.

The **alveoli** have a lining, the nature of which is still the subject of discussion. It is probable, however, that in the adult, the elements composing them are of two kinds (fig. 383): (i) groups of small, cubical cells, relatively

thick ; (ii) extremely thin anucleated squames, the outlines of which are easily exhibited by treatment with silver nitrate. These squames appear to form an extremely delicate layer, separating the blood-capillaries from the air within the alveoli. It is possible that the absence of nuclei in these elements (as in the red blood corpuscles) is in relation to a purely respiratory function. Recent work, however (Cappell), indicates that the anucleated elements are far fewer than previously supposed. The capillary network of the alveolus is very close (fig. 385), and the capillary vessels of adjacent alveoli are in complete continuity. Besides the epithelium a delicate connective tissue forms the wall of each alveolus. Elastic fibres are numerous

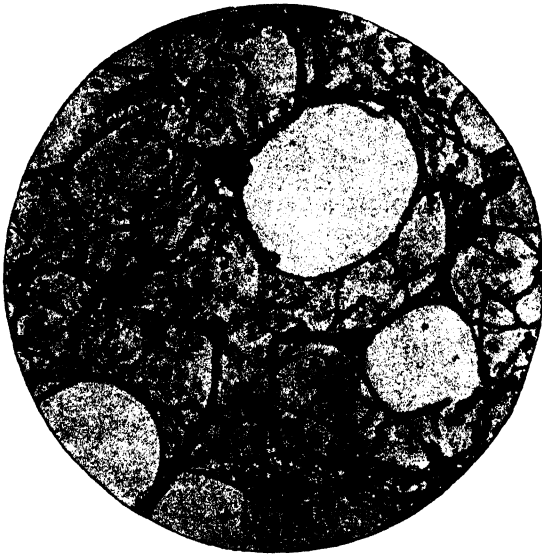


FIG. 386.—ELASTIC FIBRES OF LUNG, STAINED WITH ORCEIN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 200. Photograph.

around the mouths of the alveoli ; a certain number course over the wall of each alveolus (fig. 386).

Large dust-containing phagocytes may usually be seen both attached to the alveolar wall and free in the alveolar cavity. They are especially common in the lungs of town-dwellers, in which the pulmonary lymphatics and bronchial glands are also charged with black particles conveyed thither by these *dust-cells*. Much recent work points to these elements being derived from the alveolar epithelium, the cells of which swell up, undergo detachment and become actively phagocytic. (Cappell ; Haynes ; Carleton.)

Blood-vessels.—Branches of the pulmonary artery accompany the bronchi, to be distributed to the capillary networks upon the alveoli ; from which networks the blood is returned by the pulmonary veins. An arteriole runs with each terminal bronchiole, and, dividing into as many branches as there are alveoli (fig. 382), is distributed to the capillary networks of all the

air-cells with which the bronchiole is connected (Miller). From these networks one or two venules collect the blood, usually coursing independently of the arteriole on the outer border of the group of infundibula, and they eventually unite with other venules to form efferent veins. The venules of the superficial lobules are connected with a vascular network at the surface of the lung underneath the pleura. This network is also supplied from the bronchial arteries. The veins, pursuing a separate course through the tissue of the lung, join with others to form larger vessels which pass to the root of the lung. Branches from the bronchial arteries are distributed to the walls of the bronchial tubes, and to the connective tissue of the lung, including that of the pleura. Bronchial veins accompany the bronchial arteries to the larger tubes, but most of the blood brought to the lungs by the bronchial arteries is returned by the pulmonary veins. Connective tissue intervenes everywhere in small quantity between the infundibula and forms a distinct layer, containing much elastic tissue, covering the surface of the lung underneath the serous membrane (subserous tissue). In some animals (*e.g.*, guinea-pig) the subserous layer contains plain muscular tissue, which is especially developed near the lung-apex; it has not been detected in man.

In the guinea-pig and opossum the pulmonary arteries have a very thick musculature, which is, however, not continuous throughout, but is interrupted at irregular intervals by portions of artery devoid of muscular coat, giving a varicose appearance to the vessels when isolated from the surrounding lung-tissue. In ruminants the muscular coat has a spiral arrangement.

The **lymphatics** of the lung accompany the bronchi, the branches of the pulmonary artery, and the branches of the pulmonary vein; they also form a network in the pleura. The atria and air-sacs have no lymphatics in their walls (Miller). The bronchial lymphatics are less superficial than the corresponding blood-vessels. The larger bronchi have two plexuses; one within, the other outside the cartilages. The smaller have only one set. The lymphatics of the bronchi are connected with those of the arteries and veins by lateral branches curving off at the divarications of the tubes; at these points there is often an accumulation of lymphoid tissue which may take the form of definite nodules. The larger arteries and veins have two accompanying lymphatics, the smaller only one. All the lymphatics tend towards the hilum, and enter lymphatic glands at the root of the lung. The lymphatics of the pleura are abundantly furnished with valves.

Nerves.—The lung receives numerous nerves both from the vagus and sympathetic. They have small ganglia on their course, in which many of the myelinate fibres of the vagi end, to be continued by postganglionic fibres to the pulmonary tissues. Terminal fibres have been traced to the mucous membrane of the bronchi and to the alveoli; they are probably both afferent and efferent. Efferent fibres pass to the muscular tissue of the bronchi and blood-vessels, where they are described as ending in spindle-shaped enlargements, in close contact with the muscle-cells (Larsell).

THE PLEURA.

The **pleura**, which covers the surface of the lung, has the usual structure of a serous membrane (fig. 387). It is provided with a special network of



FIG. 387.—SECTION OF PLEURA: OX. (Favaro.) $\times 270$.

e, endothelium; *m*, substance of membrane with numerous elastic fibres; *h*, subpleural layer; *l*, lymph-vessel.

blood-vessels, supplied partly from the pulmonary vessels of the superficial lobules, partly from the bronchial arteries. It also has many lymphatic vessels.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE LUNG.

The lung is developed in the same manner as a secreting gland, to which up to a certain period of formation it bears a close resemblance (fig. 388). Its alveoli correspond with the secreting alveoli of a racemose gland, and the cells lining them

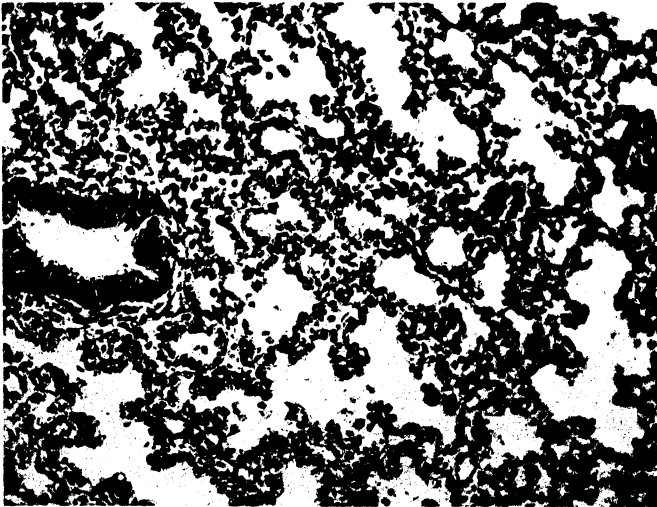


FIG. 388.—LUNG OF SEVEN MONTHS HUMAN FÆTUS SHOWING A BRONCHIOLE AND THE THICK-WALLED UNEXPANDED ALVEOLI. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 160$.

are cubical. At the time of birth the distal alveoli on the walls of the atria and infundibuli are largely undeveloped and the respiratory exchanges occur mainly in the alveoli of the respiratory bronchioles. After a time the ordinary alveoli become formed and are brought into activity, but the process is gradual and even in a child a few years old the alveoli are still proportionately less developed and more shallow than in after-life (Broman).

LESSON XXVIII.

STRUCTURE AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEETH.

1. **STUDY** first with the low power and afterwards with the high power a longitudinal section of a human tooth which has been prepared by grinding. It is better to purchase this specimen, for the process of preparation is difficult and tedious without the aid of special apparatus. Examine carefully the enamel, the dentine, and the cement. The dark appearance of the dentinal tubules and of the lacunæ in the cement is due to their containing air in the dried specimen. Make sketches from each of the tissues.

2. Examine section of a tooth *in situ*, which has been decalcified after fixation, and stained. In this section the mode of implantation of a tooth, as well as the structure of the pulp, can be made out. Make a general sketch under a low power, and under a high power draw a small piece of the pulp showing the processes of the odontoblasts extending into the dentinal tubules.

3. Preparations with the soft parts *in situ* can also be made without decalcification. After fixation of the soft parts and staining of tissues in bulk (this requires several days), the specimen is dehydrated with absolute alcohol and impregnated with xylol followed by Canada balsam. This is allowed to become hard, after which sections can be cut from it with a fine saw, and subsequently ground until transparent, when they are mounted in Canada balsam. This method needs special apparatus and skill.

4. The development of the teeth and the formation of their tissues are studied in sections made across the snout and lower jaw of foetal and young animals. Either the preparations are stained in bulk or the individual sections may be stained.

For the decalcification of teeth, Gooding and Stewart's method is to be recommended (see Appendix).

TISSUES OF THE TEETH.

A **tooth** consists of three calcified tissues: *enamel*, which is of epithelial origin, *dentine*, and *cement* or *crusta petrosa*—both derived from mesenchyme. The dentine forms the main substance of a tooth, the enamel covers the crown, and the cement is a layer of bone which invests the root (figs. 389 to 393).

Enamel is formed of elongated hexagonal *prisms* (fig. 393) often with rounded angles: they are set vertically, or with a slight curvature, upon the surface of the dentine. The prisms are separated by an interprismatic substance which is also calcified. They are marked at tolerably regular intervals with slight transverse shadings producing an indistinct cross-striated appearance. The cross-striation appears to be due to the manner in which the calcific matter has been deposited in successive layers and is

often accentuated by slight varicosities upon the prisms. Sometimes coloured lines run through the enamel across the direction of its prisms. The enamel prisms have when first laid down a fibrous structure, but this becomes obscured after their calcification is complete, although it can

occasionally be made out (fig. 394). The enamel of the fully formed tooth contains only an extremely minute proportion of animal matter (C. Tomes, Lovatt Evans); it is almost wholly composed of earthy matter, chiefly calcium phosphate, with some carbonate. No cells are present in enamel.

Enamel is the hardest tissue in the body; it is devoid of any regenerative power—a fact well known both to the dental surgeon and to the patient.

The enamel of unworn teeth is covered by a very thin membrane of a horny nature. This membrane is perhaps the remains of the layer of cells which produced the enamel. It is known as *Nasmyth's membrane* or the *cuticle of the enamel*.

Dentine is constituted of a hard dense substance like bone, but containing neither Haversian canals, lacunæ nor cells. It is pierced everywhere by fine wavy or spirally coursing canaliculi, the *dentine tubules*, fig. 392, radiating outwards from a central cavity which, during life, contains the pulp. The tubules branch at acute angles as they pass outwards; they become gradually finer towards the periphery of the

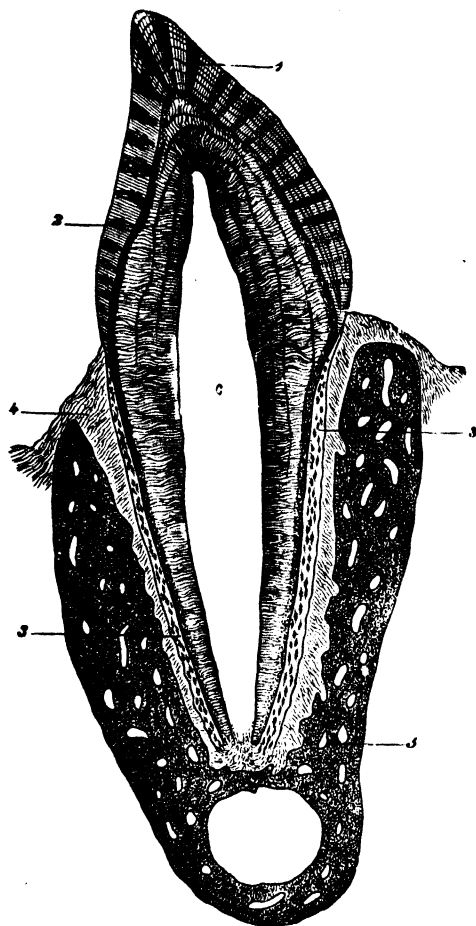


FIG. 389.—VERTICAL SECTION OF A TOOTH IN SITU.
(Waldeyer.)

c is placed in the pulp-cavity, opposite the cervix or neck of the tooth; the part above is the crown, that below is the root (fang). 1, enamel with radial and concentric markings; 2, dentine with tubules and incremental lines; 3, cement or crusta petrosa, with bone corpuscles; 4, dental periosteum; 5, bone of lower jaw.

dentine. The main tubules give off along their whole course very numerous lateral branches which extend for a considerable distance in the dentine, and as they proceed become of almost immeasurable fineness (Howard Mumfery). To exhibit the finest twigs special methods of staining are required.

The tubules have a proper wall of their own, which can be isolated by treating a section of tooth with strong hydrochloric acid. In the living tooth

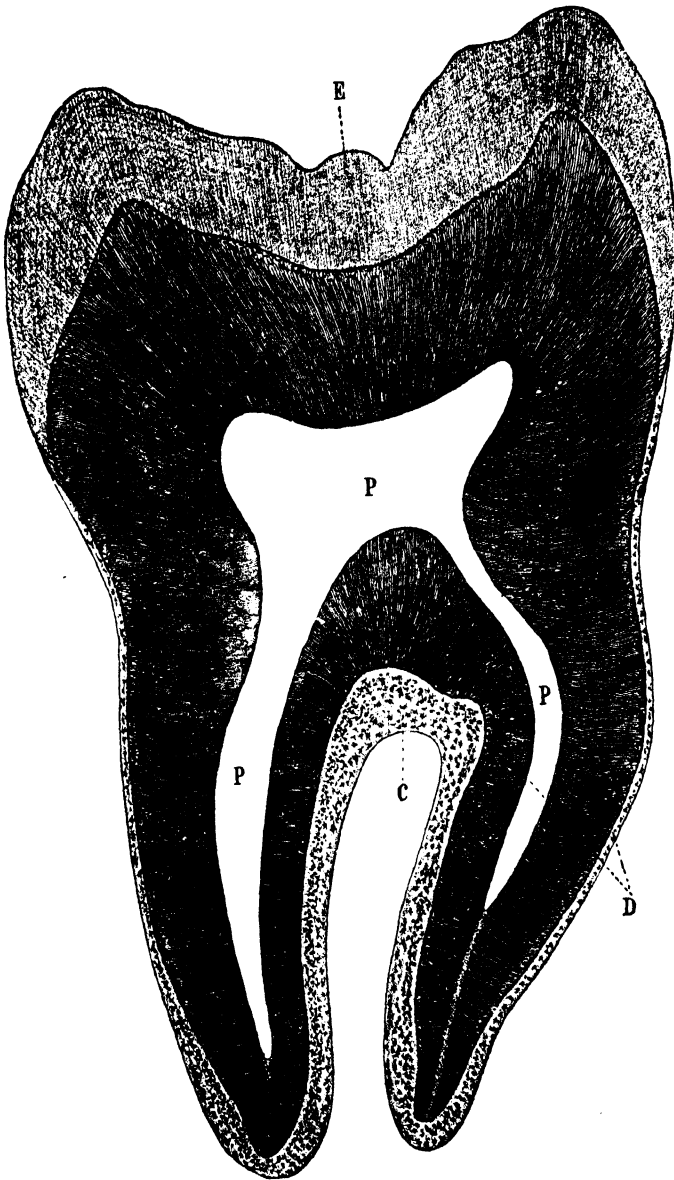


FIG. 390.—SECTION OF MOLAR TOOTH: HUMAN. (Sobotta.) $\times 8$.

E, enamel; D, dentine; C, cement; P, pulp-cavity.

they are occupied by protoplasmic fibres, the dentinal processes of Tomes, prolonged from the superficial cells or odontoblasts of the pulp.

The intertubular substance appears for the most part homogeneous, but it can be shown to have a fibrous structure. Indications of the fact that its calcareous matter was deposited in the form of globules can be seen in various parts. This is particularly the case in places where the globular deposit

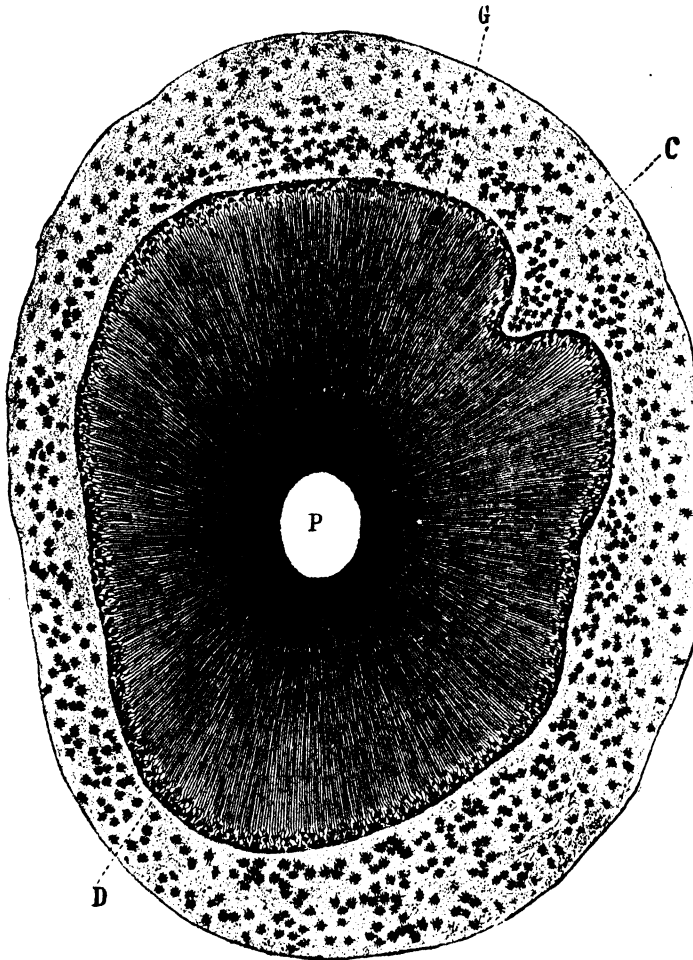


FIG. 391.—CROSS-SECTION OF ROOT OF CANINE TOOTH: HUMAN. (Sobotta.) $\times 25$.

D, dentine; G, its granular layer; C, cement; P, pulp-cavity.

was imperfect; the *interglobular spaces* left between the globules then produce the appearance of irregular cavities in sections of macerated tooth prepared by grinding and mounted dry. Under these conditions the cavities are occupied by air only, for the uncalcified animal matter has been destroyed in the process of maceration. Such interglobular spaces are most common near the surface of the dentine immediately within the *crusta petrosa*, where

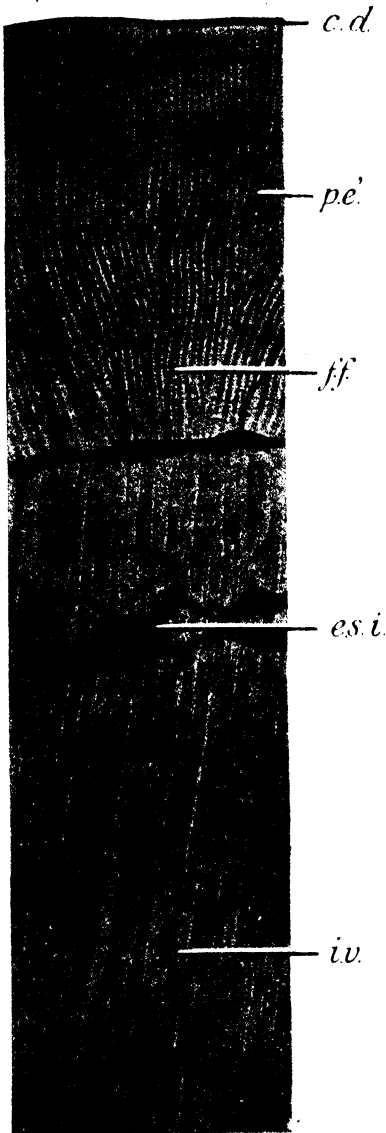


FIG. 392.—GROUND TRANSVERSE SECTION OF PART OF MOLAR. (P. Bouin.) $\times 200$.

c.d., cuticle of tooth; *pe.*, enamel prisms, amongst which the enamel fibres (*f.f.*) can be seen; *i.v.*, dentine with its interglobular spaces, *e.s.i.*
(By permission of Librairie Félix Alcan).

they give a granular effect to the dry section (*granular layer*, fig. 391, G, and fig. 392). But they are also well seen in the course of certain lines or clefts traversing the dentine across the direction of the tubules, indicating stages of calcification of dentine (*incremental lines* (fig. 395), and such interglobular spaces, which are larger than those at the periphery of the dentine, may in the unmacerated tooth be seen to have the dental tubules passing through them. After decalcification the dentine can be separated into layers along these incremental lines.

The animal matter of dentine resembles that of bone and the connective tissues generally in having its

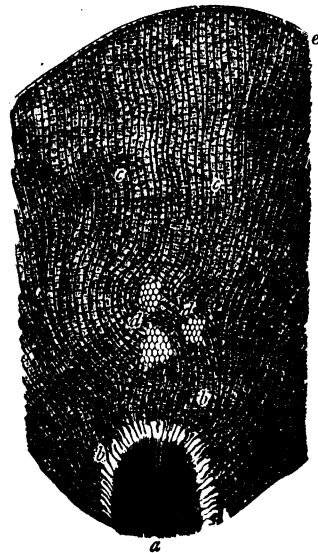


FIG. 393.—SECTION THROUGH THE ENAMEL OF A TOOTH. (Raubert.) $\times 200$.

a, projection of dentine, showing some of its tubules; *b, b*, penetrating into the enamel; *c, c*, enamel fibres cut longitudinally; *d, d*, prisms cut transversely; *e*, cuticle of the enamel.

ground-substance pervaded by fibres which yield gelatine on boiling. These fibres, which have been especially investigated by v. Ebner and Howard Mummery, are difficult of demonstration in the fully calcified dentine;

but in developing dentine and in dentine which is attacked by caries, they are more easily shown. They run for the most part parallel with the surface.

The **crusta petrosa** or **cement** (fig. 391) is a layer of lamellated bone which



FIG. 394.—SECTION OF ENAMEL TAKEN ALONG THE DIRECTION OF THE PRISMS. (Photographed from a preparation by Leon Williams.) $\times 900$.
The prisms show both a cross-striated appearance and longitudinal fibrillation.

covers the dentine beyond the enamel. Except in situations where it is very thin it exhibits lacunæ and canaliculi, but in normal human teeth there are no Haversian canals. The crusta petrosa is covered with periosteum, the *dental periosteum*, which also lines the socket. The fibrous bundles of this periosteum extend on the one side into the crusta petrosa, on the other into the bony wall of the socket for the tooth, and thus serve to fix the tooth very securely.

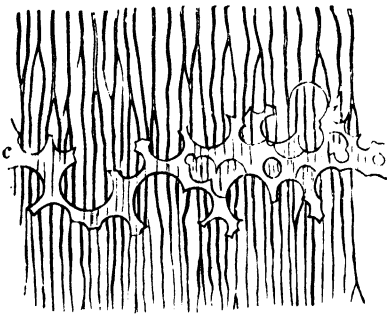


FIG. 395.—A SMALL PORTION OF DENTINE WITH INTERGLOBULAR SPACES. (Kölliker.) $\times 350$.

c, portion of incremental line formed by the interglobular spaces, which are here filled up by the transparent mounting material.

For a more complete account of the structure of the dental tissues the student may consult J. Howard Mumery, 'The Microscopic and General Anatomy of the Teeth.'

The **pulp** (fig. 396) consists of a soft, somewhat jelly-like, connective tissue containing branched cells, a network of blood-vessels, most

numerous near the dentine, lymph-vessels, and many nerve-fibres, for the most part myelinate but some amylinate. The nerve-fibres pass into the pulp-cavity along with the blood-vessels by a minute canal at the apex of the fang.

The superficial cells of the pulp form an almost continuous layer, like an epithelium. They are known as *odontoblasts*, from having been concerned in the formation of the dentine, but, until calcification commences, they are not very different in appearance from the other cells of the pulp. At the side next the dentine they become, as it were, spun out into the dentinal processes of J. Tomes. The nerve-fibres lose their myelin sheaths a short

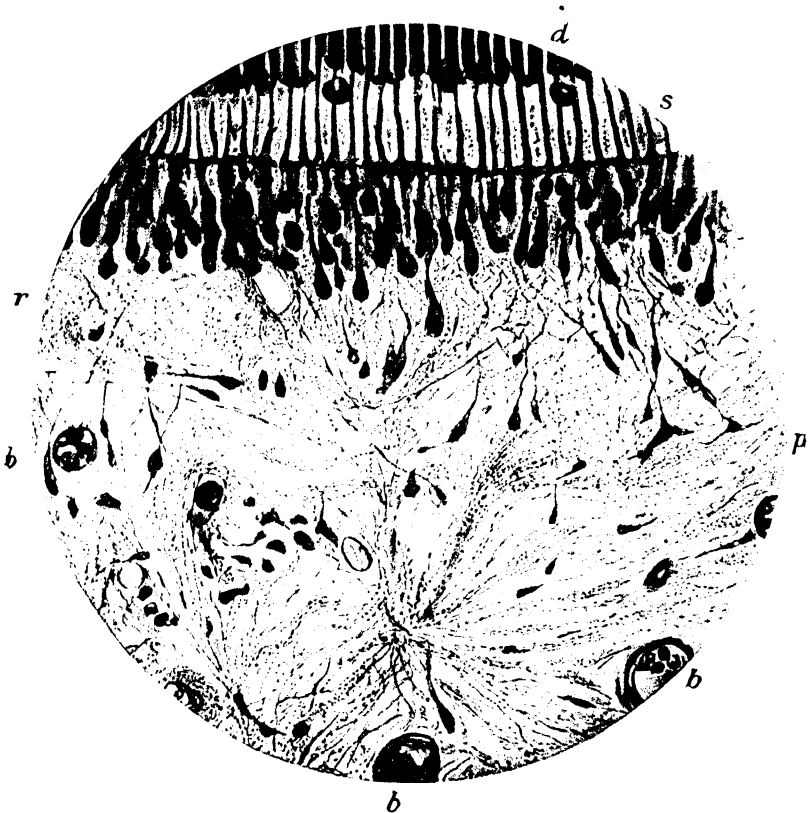


FIG. 396.—PREPARATION FROM A DECALCIFIED SPECIMEN OF TOOTH STAINED BY SILVER NITRATE AND PYRIDINE. (J. Howard Mummery.) $\times 600$.

p, pulp in which are seen many fine nerve-fibrils. Most of these are directed towards the dentine. At *r* is the plexus of Raschkow whence fibrils are passing between the odontoblasts to the marginal plexus; some are traceable with the processes of the odontoblasts into the odontogenic zone of uncalcified dentine, *s*; *d*, calcified dentine; *b*, *b*, blood-vessels.

distance from the odontoblasts; here the axis-cylinders form an interlacement known as the *plexus of Raschkow*; from this plexus numerous fibrils pass between the odontoblasts and join another very fine plexus which lies between them and the dentine, the *marginal plexus* of Mummery. The nerves of the pulp send fibrils into the dentine and, according to Mummery, enter the dentine tubules along with the processes of the odontoblasts; they pass along the tubules as very fine beaded fibrils, to end in arborisations at the surface of the dentine beneath the enamel and cement. Here and there

a fibril may even pass a certain distance between the enamel prisms. There is evidence (W. Lewinsky and D. Stewart; 1936) that such fibrils do not penetrate as far as the tubules of the true dentine. They end in the proximal region of the latter, *i.e.*, quite close to the pulp.

As age advances nodules of dentine may be formed in the interior of the pulp. Such nodules sometimes surround blood-vessels, and thus give to this secondary dentine an appearance resembling bone. It has been on that account termed *osteodentine*.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE TEETH.

The development of teeth has a certain similarity to that of hairs. The first change which foreshadows their development takes the form of a continuous thickening of the epithelium along the line of the gum; this thickening grows into the corium of the mucous membrane to form the *common dental rudiment* or *lamina* (fig. 397, A). At regular intervals there is a further thickening and growth from the common rudiment into the tissue of the mucous membrane, each of these special rudiments, which are ten in number, swelling out below into a flask-shaped mass of cells, the *special dental rudiment* (fig. 397, B) of a milk-tooth. The intermediate parts of the dental lamina long remain, forming a common epithelial strand uniting the several special dental rudiments to one another, and to the epithelium covering the gum (fig. 397, C, D, f). A vascular *papilla* is continued from the corium into the bottom of each special rudiment (fig. 397, C, D, p); this papilla has the shape of the crown of the future tooth. Each special dental rudiment, with its included papilla, presently becomes almost entirely cut off from the epithelium of the mouth, and surrounded by a vascular connective-tissue membrane—the *dental sac*. The papilla becomes transformed into the dentine and pulp of the future tooth, and the enamel is deposited upon its surface by the epithelium-cells of the dental rudiment (fig. 398). The dental papilla is mesodermic in origin; the enamel organ is derived from the buccal ectoderm. The root of the tooth, with its covering of cement, is formed at a later period, when the tooth is beginning to grow up through the gum, by a gradual elongation of the base of the papilla. As shown first by O. Hertwig, there is a downgrowth of epithelium either from the lower part of the enamel rudiment, or, according to Mummery's observations, from other epithelium-cells which lie outside the enamel organ and are probably of similar origin. This downgrowth, which is termed the *epithelial sheath*, determines the form of the root and the formation of dentine in it, for it is always present where dentine is to be laid down. After completion of the dentine it becomes attenuated and broken up, and is eventually for the most part absorbed.

Formation of the enamel.—Before the enamel appears, the dental rudiment undergoes a peculiar transformation of its previously polyhedral epithelium-cells into four layers of modified cells (fig. 399). The innermost is a layer of columnar cells or *ameloblasts* (fig. 400, a), immediately covering the surface of the dentine. The ameloblasts form the enamel prisms: the latter are preceded by a fibrous formation (fig. 400, f) followed by a deposition of calcareous salts in the form of small globules. (Such globules are always

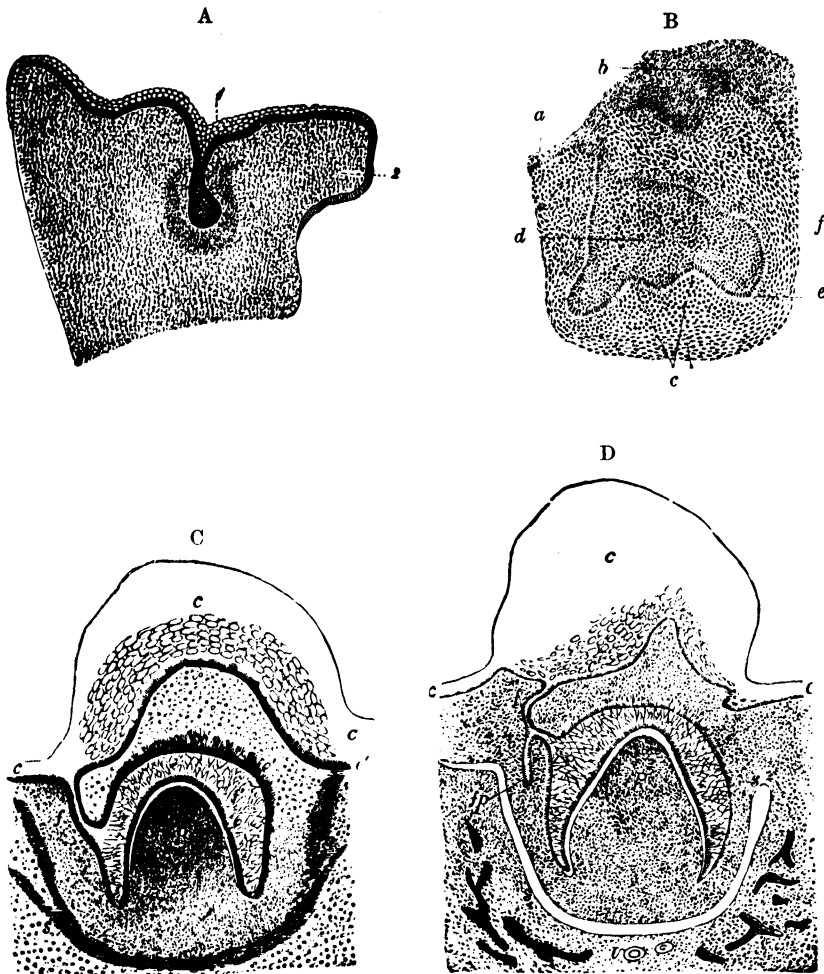


FIG. 397.

A. SECTION ACROSS THE UPPER JAW OF A FŒTAL SHEEP, 3 CM. LONG. (Waldeyer.)

1, common dental lamina dipping down into the mucous membrane where it is half surrounded by a horse-shoe-shaped more dense-looking tissue, the rudiment of the dentine and dental sac; 2, palatine process of the maxilla.

B. SECTION FROM FŒTAL CALF SIMILAR TO THAT SHOWN IN A, BUT PASSING THROUGH ONE OF THE SPECIAL DENTAL RUDIMENTS, HERE BECOMING FLASK-SHAPED. (Rösc.)

a, epithelium of mouth, thickened at b, above special dental rudiment; c, papilla; d, special dental rudiment; e, enamel epithelium; f, dental sac.

C AND D. SECTIONS AT LATER STAGES THAN A AND B, THE PAPILLA HAVING BECOME FORMED AND PARTLY SURROUNDED BY THE EPITHELIAL RUDIMENT. (Kölliker.)

c, epithelium of gum, sketched in outline; f, neck of dental rudiment; f', enamel organ; e, its deeper columnar cells; e', projections into the corium; p, papilla; s, dental sac forming. In D the dental rudiment (fp) of the corresponding permanent tooth is seen; v, blood-vessels.

formed when lime salts are deposited in colloidal solutions.) These changes take place altogether external to the formative cells or ameloblasts; indeed,

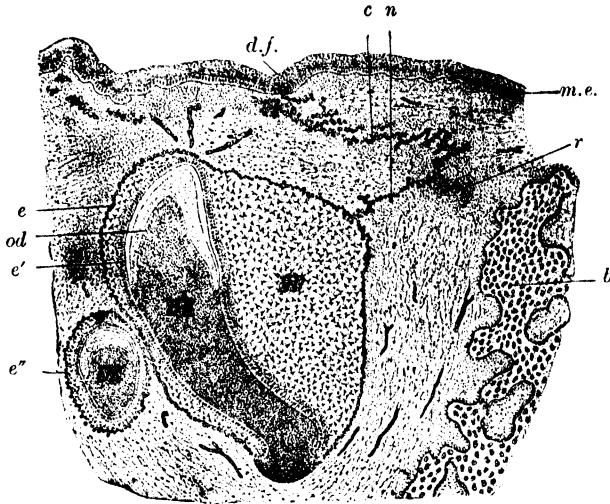


FIG. 398.—SECTION OF A DEVELOPING INCISOR TOOTH OF A HUMAN EMBRYO. (Röse.)
THE SECTION ALSO INCLUDES THE RUDIMENT OF THE ADJACENT TOOTH.

DK, dental papilla; od, odontoblasts; b, bone of jaw; e, e', outer and inner layers of enamel organ; SP, enamel pulp; d.f., dental furrow; c, remains of common dental lamina; n, neck or bridge of cells connecting this with the enamel organ; m.e., mouth-epithelium; e'', enamel organ of adjacent tooth rudiment; r, reserve rudiment of permanent tooth.

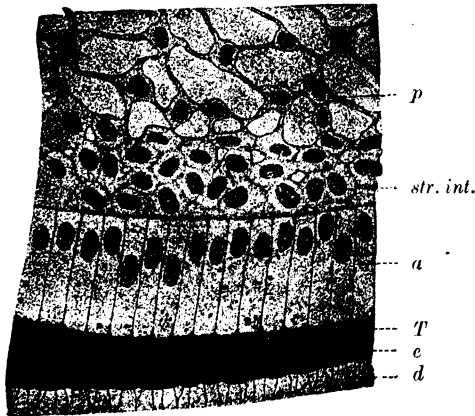


FIG. 399.—SECTION SHOWING THE STRUCTURE OF THE PART OF THE ENAMEL ORGAN WHICH LIES NEXT TO THE DENTINE. (Röse.)

d, dentine; e, newly formed enamel stained black by osmic acid; T, Tomes' processes from the ameloblasts; a; str. int., stratum intermedium of enamel organ; p, branched cells of enamel pulp.

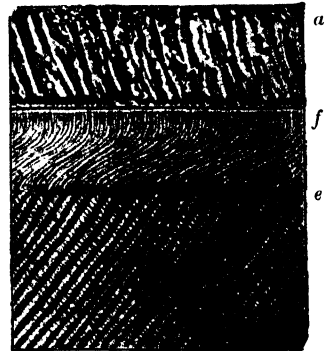


FIG. 400.—DEVELOPING ENAMEL SHOWING AMELOBLASTS AND THE FIBROUS SUBSTANCE PRODUCED BY THESE CELLS, WHICH FORMS THE BASIS OF THE ENAMEL PRISMS. (Photograph by Leon Williams.)

a, portions of the ameloblasts; f, fibrous basis of enamel prisms; e, calcified part of enamel.

according to some, there is a fine homogeneous membrane between the ameloblasts and the forming enamel, the *membrana performativa* of Huxley.

Processes from the ameloblasts penetrate this membrane and are attached to the forming enamel prisms, the *enamel processes* of J. Tomes (fig. 399, *T*). These processes are fibrillated.

The outermost cells form a single layer of cubical or polyhedral epithelium (*external epithelium*) (fig. 398, *e*). Most of the other cells of the dental rudiment become transformed into branching corpuscles (fig. 398, *SP*; fig. 399, *p*) intercommunicating by their processes, and thus forming a network. But between the ameloblasts and the reticulum of branched cells of the so-called enamel pulp is a stratum of polyhedral cells, the *stratum intermedium*. Both these and the cells of the external epithelium merge into the reticulum. The whole dental epithelial rudiment, thus modified, is known as the *enamel*

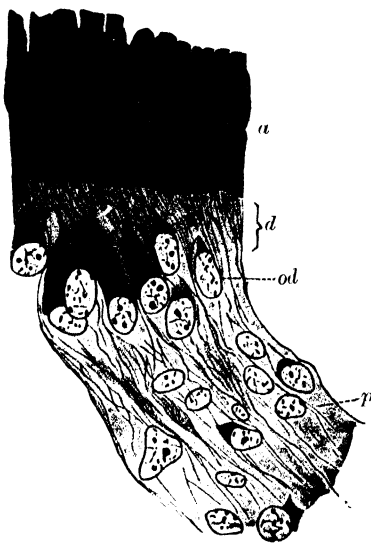


FIG. 401.—PART OF A SECTION OF DEVELOPING TOOTH OF FIG. (v. Korff.)

a, ameloblasts; *d*, fibres of the first formed layer of dentine; *od*, odontoblasts; *p*, pulp. The fibres of pulp are seen to be in continuity with those which enter into the formation of the dentine.

organ. In the later stages of enamel formation the reticulum atrophies and eventually disappears.

The enamel organ contains no blood-vessels, although they are richly distributed in the developing connective tissue covering it.

Formation of dentine.—Dentine is formed at the surface of the papilla. There is here found a well-marked layer of odontoblasts (fig. 401, *od*; fig. 402, *c*). These produce a layer of fibrillated matrix which forms a cap to the papilla, and presently becomes calcified by the deposition of globules of calcareous matter. Processes of the odontoblasts remain in the dentine as it is forming; in this way the dentine tubules originate. Most of their finer branches are formed later, as in the case of the canaliculi of bone, no doubt by an extension of their protoplasm. Such extension may even penetrate between the enamel prisms. In marsupials this occurs to an

unusual extent, giving the enamel the appearance of being pervaded by tubules (Mummery). Subsequently a second layer of dentine is formed within the first by a repetition of the same process (fig. 402), and others succeed this so that the papilla gradually becomes calcified. A part, however, remains unaltered in the centre of the tooth, and with its covering of odontoblasts forms the pulp.

The ten milk-teeth are produced in each jaw in the manner described. These, however, become lost within a few years after birth, and are replaced by permanent teeth in much the same way that a new succession of hairs occurs. A small outgrowth takes place at an early period from the dental rudiment close to each of the milk-teeth (fig. 397, D, *fp*), and this eventually becomes the rudiment of the corresponding permanent tooth. It gradually enlarges, acquires a papilla, forms an enamel organ; in short, passes through

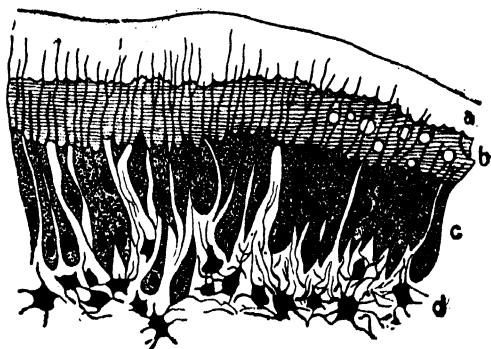


FIG. 402.—PART OF SECTION OF DEVELOPING TOOTH OF YOUNG RAT, SHOWING THE MODE OF DEPOSITION OF THE DENTINE. (E. Sharpey-Shafer.) Highly magnified.

a, outer layer of fully calcified dentine; *b*, uncalcified matrix, with a few nodules of calcareous matter; *c*, odontoblasts with processes extending into the dentine; *d*, pulp. The section is stained, the uncalcified matrix being coloured, but not the calcified part.

the same phases of development as the rudiment of the milk-tooth; and when the milk-tooth drops out of the jaw in consequence of the absorption of its roots by osteoclasts, the permanent tooth, the root of which now becomes developed, grows up into its place.

There are six permanent teeth in each jaw which do not succeed milk-teeth; these are the permanent molars or wisdom teeth. They are developed from an extension backwards on each side of the jaw of the original epithelial thickening or common dental rudiment and by the down-growth from this into the corium of three successive special rudiments at comparatively long intervals of time. From these special rudiments the tissues of the permanent molars become formed in a manner exactly similar to that in which the milk-teeth are developed.

LESSON XXIX.

THE LIP, TONGUE AND THE GUSTATORY ORGANS. THE MUCOUS MEMBRANE OF THE MOUTH. THE PHARYNX AND ŒSOPHAGUS.

1. EXAMINE sagittal sections of the lip (man or monkey).

2. Examine sections of the tongue (man or monkey) vertical to the surface. The sections should be taken from different parts and include all three kinds of papillæ.

3. Examine sections of a papilla foliata of the rabbit; these show taste-buds *in situ*.

4. The cells composing the taste-buds are studied in teased osmic preparations of a papilla foliata. The nerve-endings are seen in sections of papillæ foliata which have been treated by the osmic-bichromate-silver method (see Appendix).

5. Examine sections of the pharynx and of the œsophagus. Susa fixation may be employed for all preparations except No. 4.

THE LIP.

The lip is covered on part of its anterior aspect by skin, posteriorly by buccal mucosa. The latter is reflected some way up the anterior (external) surface. Mucous glands are abundant in the corium.

THE TONGUE. ✓

The **tongue** is mainly composed of cross-striated muscular fibres, running in three different planes. This arrangement of bundles of longitudinal, transverse and vertical fibres lying side by side is quite characteristic of the musculature

of the tongue. It is covered by a mucous membrane; the epithelium, like that of the rest of the mouth, is stratified, and conceals microscopic papillæ like those of the skin. Besides these microscopic projections, the upper surface of the organ is beset with large papillæ, which give it a rough appearance. These, termed the *lingual papillæ*, are of three kinds :

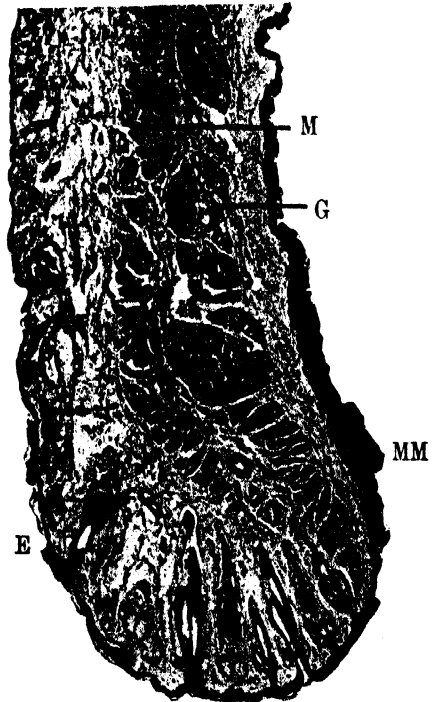


FIG. 403.—UPPER LIP: MONKEY. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 13$.

E, epithelium of outer surface showing hair follicles; MM, mucous membrane of inner aspect; G, labial glands; M, muscle.

(1) *Circumvallate papillæ* or *papillæ vallatæ*.—These form about twelve or thirteen comparatively large circular projections, each of which is sur-



FIG. 404.—SECTION OF FOUR FILIFORM PAPILLÆ OF TONGUE OF MONKEY. (H. M. Carleton.)
× 182.



FIG. 405.—FUNGIFORM PAPILLA OF TONGUE OF MONKEY. (H. M. Carleton.)
× 180.

Two filiform papillæ are on the right.

rounded by a narrow groove (fossa), external to which the mucous membrane is raised above the general level (vallum; fig. 406). These papillæ lie in a V-shaped line with the apex of the V towards the back of the tongue; they

receive filaments of the glosso-pharyngeal nerve, and have taste-buds in the epithelium which covers their sides, and (in man but not in most mammals) in that of the side of the vallum as well. The fact that the taste-buds cover the sides but not the top of the papilla is, in all probability, a physiological adaptation (Cowdry). Thus the vallum retains some of the juices of the food and thereby prolongs gustatory sensations. The number of taste-buds in the papilla of a young adult is over two hundred.

(2) *Filiform papillæ*.—The remainder of the papillary surface of the tongue is covered by these. They are also known as the conical papillæ on account of the conical pointed cap of epithelium which is borne by each ;

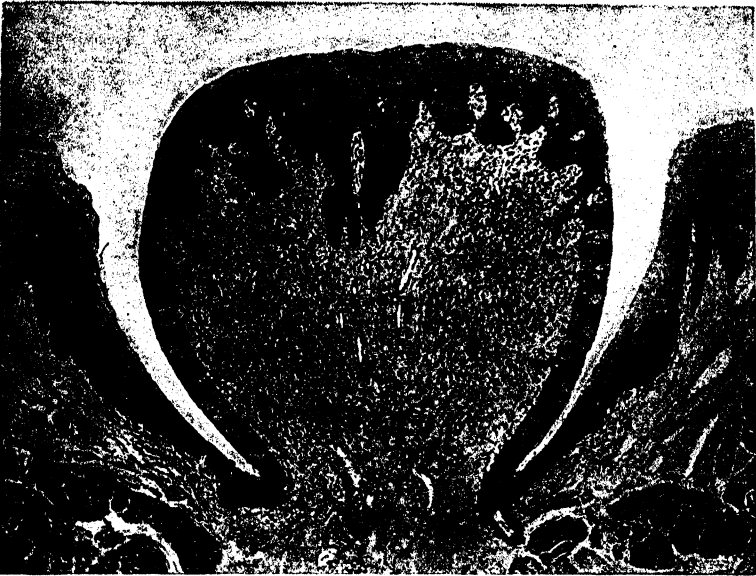


FIG. 406.—SECTION OF CIRCUMVALLATE PAPILLA OF MONKEY. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 50. Photograph.

Notice the irregularly papillated, flat surface of the papilla : the deep trench surrounding it : the taste-buds in the epithelium at the sides of the papilla : the serous glands opening into the bottom of the trench on the right.

in man this cap is fringed with fine epithelial filaments, hence they are termed *filiform* (fig. 404). In the cat tribe the conical papillæ are claw-shaped and recurved : they are hard and horny, and in the process of licking they produce the effect of scraping.

(3) *Fungiform papillæ*.—These are larger papillæ scattered here and there amongst the conical papillæ. They are very vascular, have a redder appearance than the rest, and lie partly embedded in little depressions of the mucous membrane. They have a certain number of taste-buds in their epithelium and receive branches from one or other of the taste-nerves.

Small tubulo-racemose glands, the *lingual glands*, may be seen between the superficial muscular fibres sending their ducts to the surface. Most of these glands secrete mucus, but those which open into the trenches of the circum-

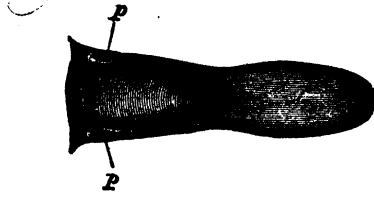


FIG. 407.—TONGUE OF RABBIT, SHOWING THE SITUATION OF PAPILLÆ FOLIATÆ, *P, P.*
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

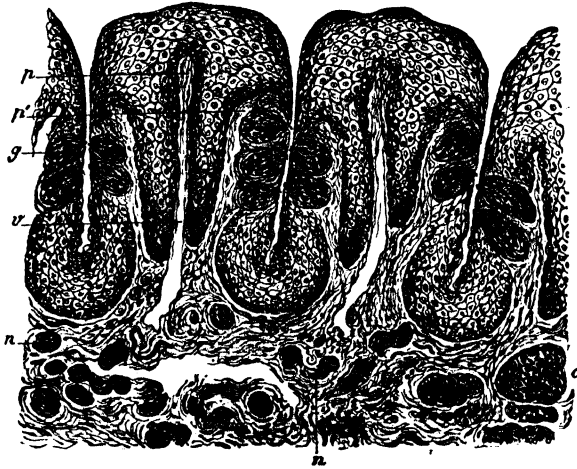


FIG. 408.—VERTICAL SECTION OF PAPILLA FOLIATA OF THE RABBIT, PASSING ACROSS THE LAMINÆ. (Ranvier.)

p, central lamina formed of corium; *v*, section of a vein, which traverses the lamina; *p'*, lateral lamina in which the nerve-fibres run; *g*, taste-bud; *n*, sections of nerve-bundles; *a*, serous gland.

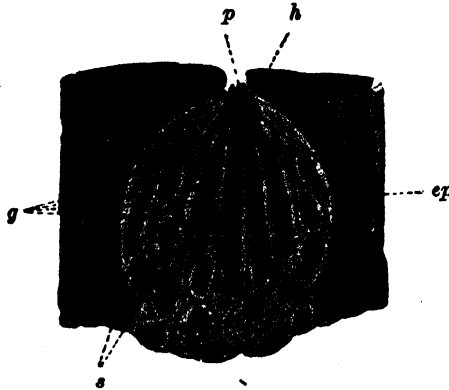


FIG. 409.—A TASTE-BUD WITHIN THE STRATIFIED EPITHELIUM OF THE TONGUE.
(Sobotta.) $\times 500$.

g, gustatory cells; *s*, sustentacular cells; *ep*, epithelium; *p*, gustatory pore; *h*, hairlets.

vallate papillæ, and a few others elsewhere, yield a more watery secretion containing serum albumin and are known as the *glands of von Ebner*.

Normally the colour of the tongue is pink. Under certain conditions, such as gastro-intestinal disturbance, it becomes furred. This condition is histologically shown to be due to a delayed shedding of the outer layers of the lingual mucosa. It is they, and the bacteria caught up in them, which produce this grey film.

The mucous membrane at the back of the tongue contains a large amount of lymphoid tissue, continuous with that of the tonsils and having a similar arrangement and structure.

TASTE-BUDS.

The minute gustatory organs, known as *taste-buds* or *taste-bulbs*, may be seen in sections which pass through the papillæ vallatæ or the papillæ fungiformes; they are also present here and there in the epithelium of the general mucous membrane of the tongue, especially at the back and sides; some are found upon the under surface of the soft palate, on the gums, and on the anterior and posterior surfaces of the epiglottis. But they are most easily studied in the *papillæ foliatæ* of the rabbit (fig. 407), two small oval areas lying on each side of the back of the tongue, and marked transversely with a number of ridges or laminae with intervening trenches. Sections across the laminae show numerous taste-buds embedded in the thick epithelium which clothes their sides (figs. 406, 408).



FIG. 410.—VARIOUS CELLS FROM TASTE-BUD OF RABBIT. (Engelmann.) $\times 600$.

a, four gustatory cells from central part; b, one sustentacular cell, and two gustatory cells, in connexion; c, three sustentacular cells.

The taste-buds are ovoid clusters of epithelium-cells which lie in cavities in the stratified epithelium. The base of the taste-bud rests upon the corium of the mucous membrane, and receives a branch of the glosso-pharyngeal nerve; the apex is narrow and communicates with the cavity of the mouth by a small pore in the superficial epithelium—the *gustatory pore* (fig. 409, *p*).

The cells which compose the taste-bud are of two kinds, viz.: (1) The *gustatory cells* (fig. 410, *a*). These are long delicate bipolar cells, tapering towards both ends. Each is composed of cell-body or nucleated enlargement and of two processes, one distal, the other proximal. Of these the distal is

nearly straight, and passes towards the apex of the taste-bud, where it terminates in a small, highly refracting cilium-like appendage, the *taste-hairlet*, which projects into the gustatory pore above mentioned; the cell-body does not itself quite reach the pore. The proximal process is more delicate than the other, and is often branched and varicose. The nerve-fibres to the taste-bud (fig. 411) terminate in ramifications amongst these cells. (2) The *sustentacular cells* (fig. 410, *c*). These are elongated cells, mostly flattened, and pointed at their ends; they lie between the gustatory cells, which they thus appear to support, and in addition they form a sort of envelope or covering to the taste-bud. Between the cells of the taste-bud leucocytes are often seen, having probably wandered hither from the adjacent mucous membrane. Connective-tissue fibrils penetrate between the taste-bud and the stratified epithelium in which it is embedded (Drasch).

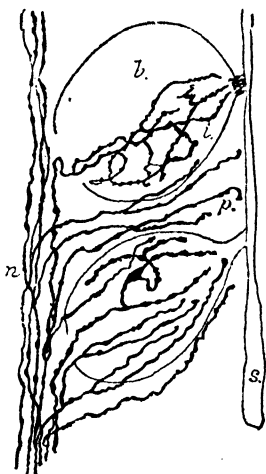


FIG. 411.—NERVE-ENDINGS
IN TASTE-BUDS.
(G. Retzius.)

n, nerve-fibres; *b*, taste-buds in outline; *t*, ending of fibrils within taste-bud; *p*, ending in epithelium between taste-buds; *s*, sulcus of papilla foliata into which the gustatory pores open.

MOUTH, PHARYNX, AND OESOPHAGUS.

The **mucous membrane of the mouth** is lined by a stratified epithelium (fig. 412) into which vascular papillæ, and, in some parts, papillæ containing end-bulbs, project. The corium is formed of connective tissue and contains within and beneath it a large number of small secretory glands, the *buccal glands*. Most of these secrete mucus, but some are of the mixed type (see under Salivary Glands in next Lesson); this is the case, for example, with the glands of the lips. The ducts of the

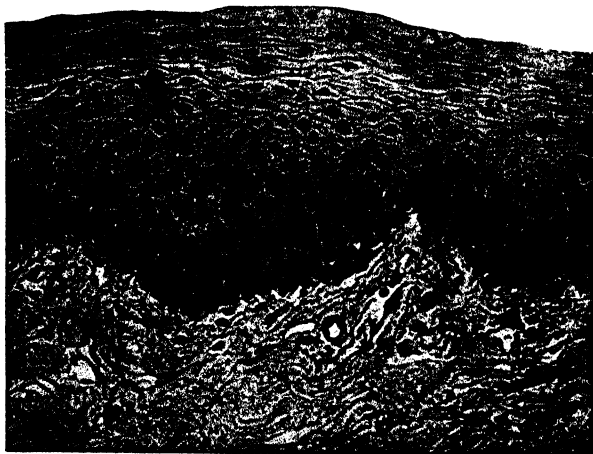


FIG. 412.—SECTION OF THE STRATIFIED EPITHELIUM OF THE FAUCES OF THE RABBIT.
× 240. Photograph.

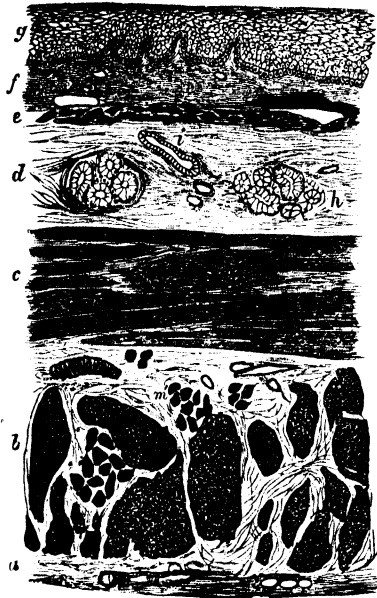


FIG. 413.—SECTION OF HUMAN OESOPHAGUS. (Drawn by Victor Horsley.)

The section is transverse, and from near the middle of the gullet. *a*, fibrous covering; *b*, cross-section of bundles of plain muscle belonging to the longitudinal muscular layer; *c*, bundles of plain muscle of the circular muscular layer; *d*, submucous or areolar layer; *e*, muscularis mucosae; *f*, corium with papillae; *g*, stratified epithelium; *h*, mucous gland; *i*, gland duct.

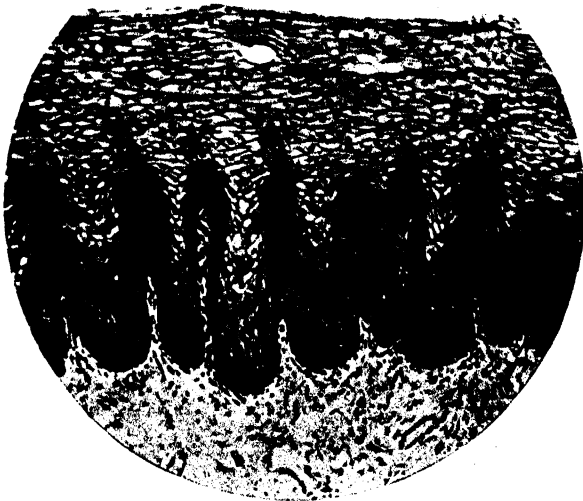


FIG. 414.—SECTION OF HUMAN OESOPHAGUS SHOWING THE STRATIFIED EPITHELIUM WITH PAPILLÆ EXTENDING INTO IT FROM THE CORIUM. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 80$, Photograph.

buccal glands open everywhere upon the surface of the mucous membrane. The large ducts belonging to the salivary glands also open into the mouth.

The **pharynx** is composed of a *fibrous membrane* which is encircled by striated muscles (the *constrictors*), and lined by *mucous membrane* with which the fibrous membrane is connected by areolar tissue. The mucous membrane is covered on its inner surface in the upper part of the pharynx with ciliated epithelium; this is continuous above and in front with that of the nostrils, and through the Eustachian tube with that of the tympanum. Below the level of the soft palate the epithelium is stratified, like that of the mouth and gullet into which it passes. In certain parts the mucous membrane contains a large amount of lymphoid tissue, and everywhere numerous mucous glands open on its surface.

The **œsophagus** or **gullet**, which passes from the pharynx to the stomach, consists of an outer *connective-tissue covering*, a *muscular coat*, a lining *mucous membrane*, and intervening connective tissue forming the *submucous areolar coat* (fig. 413). The muscular coat is composed of striated muscle in about its upper third, in the middle third this gradually gives place to non-striated: at the lower end the latter only occurs. There are two layers of the muscular coat—an outer layer, in which the bundles of fibres run longitudinally, and an inner, in which they have a circular arrangement. The mucous membrane is lined by a stratified epithelium, into which papillæ from the corium project (fig. 414). The corium is formed of areolar tissue; its limits are marked externally by a narrow layer of longitudinally disposed plain muscular fibres, the *muscularis mucosæ*. This is separated from the proper muscular coat by the areolar coat, which contains the larger branches of the blood-vessels and lymphatics, and also the mucous glands of the membrane. The ducts of these glands are large and, before passing through the epithelium covering the surface, they are usually surrounded by an accumulation of lymphoid tissue. Lymphocytes from this often infiltrate the epithelium of the duct and pass out into its lumen.

Besides the mucous glands, there are met with in some mammals (including man) both at the upper or pharyngeal part of the œsophagus and at the lower or gastric end a certain number of small tubulo-racemose glands of a different character. They are confined to the mucous membrane, not penetrating the *muscularis mucosæ*, while their ducts open upon and not between the papillæ of the mucous membrane. They closely resemble the tubulo-racemose cardiac glands of the stomach (see fig. 429, p. 354), and it is usually found that the epithelium of the surface in the immediate neighbourhood of their ducts is similar to that lining the stomach.

There are two gangliated nerve-plexuses in the œsophagus, one in the muscular coat and one in the submucous coat; they resemble in position and structure those of the intestine to be described later (p. 364).

LESSON XXX.

THE SALIVARY GLANDS.

1. EXAMINE section of submaxillary gland. The gland is fixed in Bouin's fluid for choice ; failing this, Susa or 5 per cent. neutral formol may be used. Stain with hæmatoxylin-eosin or iron-hæmatoxylin. Notice acini filled with clear mucus-secreting cells, the nuclei of which usually lie near the basement-membrane and, in the human submaxillary, other acini lined entirely with granular cells. Notice here and there, outside the clear cells, semilunes or crescents of small darkly stained granular-looking cells. Observe also the sections of the ducts with their striated columnar epithelium. If possible find a place where one of the ducts is passing into alveoli. Sketch under a high power.

2. Examine sections of parotid and sublingual glands prepared in a similar way. Notice the difference between the three glands.

3. Small pieces of both submaxillary and parotid gland of the dog or cat may be examined fresh in 2 per cent. salt solution. In the submaxillary gland notice that the alveolar cells are swollen out with large granules or droplets of mucin, which swell up in water to form large clear vacuoles. Dilute acids and alkalis produce a similar change more rapidly. The cells of the parotid gland are also filled with granules, but they are smaller. Their granules swell and dissolve with dilute acids and alkalis. Make a sketch from each preparation under a high power.

The granules are not always easy to see, but osmic acid preserves them ; they are well seen in sections from picric acid fixed glands.

4. To study the changes which the alveolar cells undergo during secretion, pilocarpine is administered to an animal in sufficient amount to produce copious salivation ; after half an hour the animal is killed and its salivary glands are examined as in § 3, or fixed in Bouin, § 1.

The salivary glands may be looked upon as typical of secreting glands in general. They are composed of a number of *lobules* bound together loosely by connective tissue. Each small lobule is formed of a group of irregularly saccular or tubular *alveoli* from which a small duct passes, and this unites with others to form larger ducts. A main duct eventually leaves the gland to open upon the inside of the mouth.

TABLE OF THE SALIVARY GLANDS.

(MAN AND MONKEY.)

	I. Parotid.	II. Submaxillary.	III. Sublingual.
Type of cell.	Entirely or almost entirely serous. Gland often infiltrated with adipose tissue.	A mixed gland with preponderance of serous cells. Crescents present at margins of mucous alveoli.	A mixed gland with preponderance of mucous cells. Crescents often associated with latter.
Type of secretion.	Very fluid ; contains little or no mucin and much ptyalin (starch-splitting enzymes).	Intermediate between I and III.	Viscous and containing much mucin.

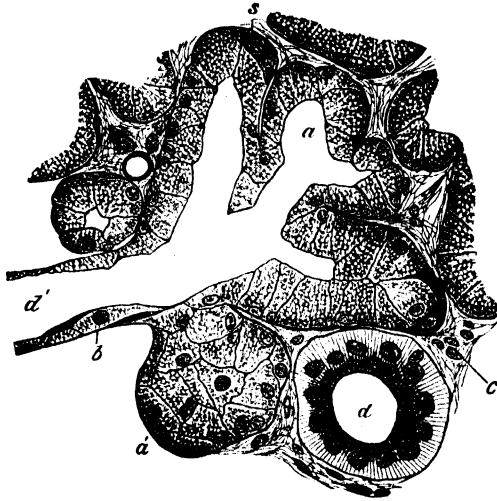


FIG. 415.—SECTION OF THE SUBMAXILLARY GLAND OF THE DOG, SHOWING THE COMMENCEMENT OF A DUCT IN THE ALVEOLI. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 425$.

a, one of the alveoli, several of which are in the section shown grouped around the commencement of the duct, *a'*; *a'* an alveolus, not cut across by the section; *b*, basement-membrane; *c*, interstitial connective tissue of the gland; *d*, section of a duct lined with characteristically striated columnar cells; *s*, crescentic group of darkly stained cells at the periphery of an alveolus.



FIG. 416.—MUCOUS SALIVARY GLAND (ONE OF THE SMALL GLANDS OF THE BUCCAL MUCOUS MEMBRANE). (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.

In the middle of the figure is seen the section of a duct.

The alveoli are enclosed by a basement-membrane which is continued along the ducts. Within it is the epithelium, which in the alveoli is composed of polyhedral cells, looking wedge-shaped in section (fig. 415, *a*), but in the



FIG. 417.—SALIVARY GLAND WITH CRESCENTS; HUMAN SUBLINGUAL (Preparation, H. M. Carleton; photograph, E. H. Leach.) $\times 460$.

c, crescentic cells; *d*, a small duct; *m*, a mucous alveolus; *n*, nuclei of mucous cells in characteristic marginal position.

ducts is regularly columnar, except in that part of the duct which immediately opens into the alveoli (*junctional part*); in this it is flattened (*d'*). The columnar epithelium of the ducts is peculiar, in that the cells are not sharply marked off from one another and show a distinction into two unequal zones, an outer, larger zone, with mitochondria arranged in a striated manner

perpendicular to the basement-membrane, and an inner, smaller one with distinct secretion-granules (fig. 415, *d*). The larger ducts are lined by clear cubical or short columnar epithelium, which may show more than one layer of cells.

The cells of the alveoli differ according to the substance they secrete.

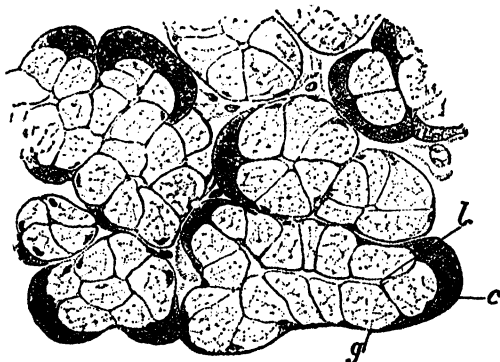


FIG. 418.—SUBMAXILLARY (DOG) AFTER A PROLONGED PERIOD OF INACTIVITY. (Ranvier.)
l, lumen of alveolus; *g*, mucus-secreting cells; *c*, crescent.

Mucous cells.—In alveoli which secrete mucus, such as those of most of the smaller glands which open on the mucous membrane of the mouth and contribute to the production of saliva (figs. 416 and 417), and some of the alveoli of the submaxillary and sublingual glands, the cells, if examined in

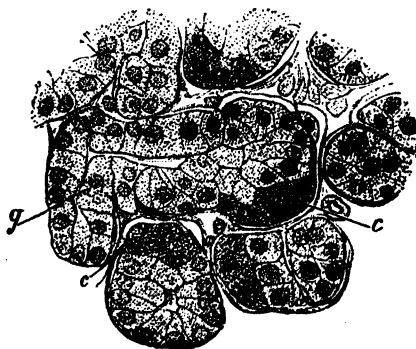


FIG. 419.—SUBMAXILLARY (DOG) AFTER A PERIOD OF ACTIVITY. (Ranvier.)
The mucus-secreting cells, *g*, have discharged their secretion, and are smaller and stain better; the cells of the crescents, *c*, are enlarged.

normal saline solution or fixed by ordinary methods, are clear and swollen. But if examined rapidly in serum, or in solutions of salt of from 2 to 5 per cent., they are often seen (as first shown by Langley) to be occupied by large and distinct globules which become swollen up under the influence of dilute acid. These globules can also be rendered visible by certain methods of staining. In many cells the globules appear blended into a clear substance

(*mucigen*) which distends the cell. When the gland is stimulated to activity this mucigen is dissolved out and discharged as *mucin* into the lumen of the alveolus and into the ducts. After such discharge, the cells may become finely granular, and rather smaller; they also tend to stain more deeply with hæmatoxylin (compare figs. 418 and 419).

Crescentic cells.—In many mucous alveoli certain of the cells do not contain mucigen, but small albuminous granules or globules; these cells

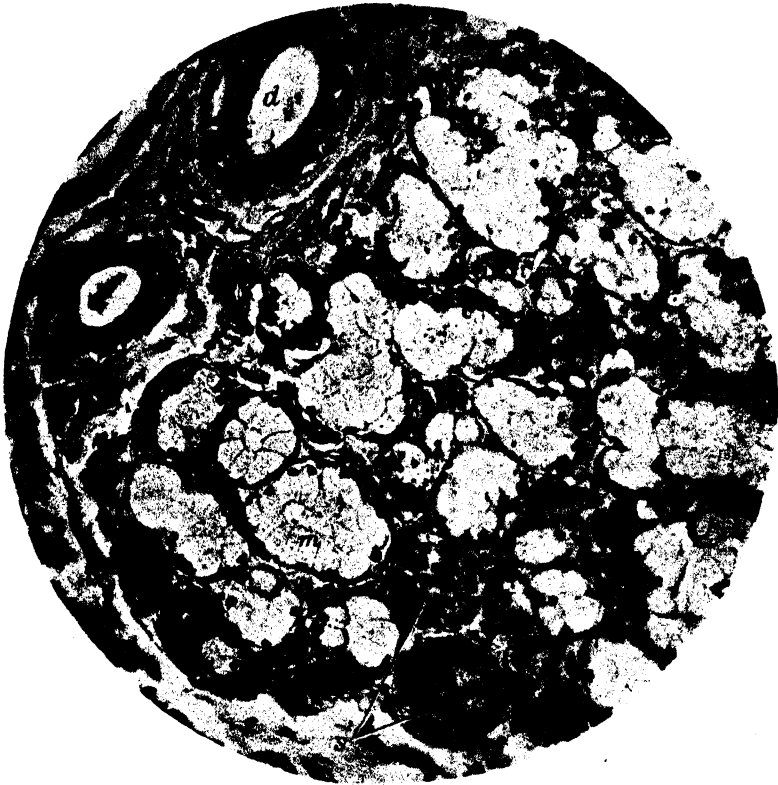


FIG. 420.—HUMAN SUBLINGUAL GLAND. (Preparation, H. M. Carleton; photograph, E. H. Leach.) $\times 230$.

Note the preponderance of mucous (*m*) over serous alveoli (*s*); *d*, a duct. The crescents are best seen in fig. 417, which represents part of this section more highly magnified.

NOTE.—This and the two succeeding figures are all equally magnified in order to allow of comparison.

often form crescentic groups which lie next to the basement-membrane (figs. 417 and 418, *c*). These groups are the so-called *crescents of Gianuzzi*, their constituent-cells being known as *marginal* or *serous cells*. Special diverticula pass from the lumen of the alveoli between the mucous cells to penetrate to the crescents and to branch amongst and within their constituent-cells; these diverticula are shown by the Golgi method of staining (fig. 423). The cells of the crescents are generally regarded as being serous both in type and in secretion.

Serous cells.—These are characteristic of purely *serous alveoli* (fig. 421), in which none of the cells secrete mucus. In these, when the gland has been long at rest, the cells are filled with apparent granules, which do not swell with water nor form mucin; they appear to consist of protein, and yield to the secretion of the gland its starch-splitting ferment (ptyalin) and its albumin. The granular substance within the cells is not the ferment, but the

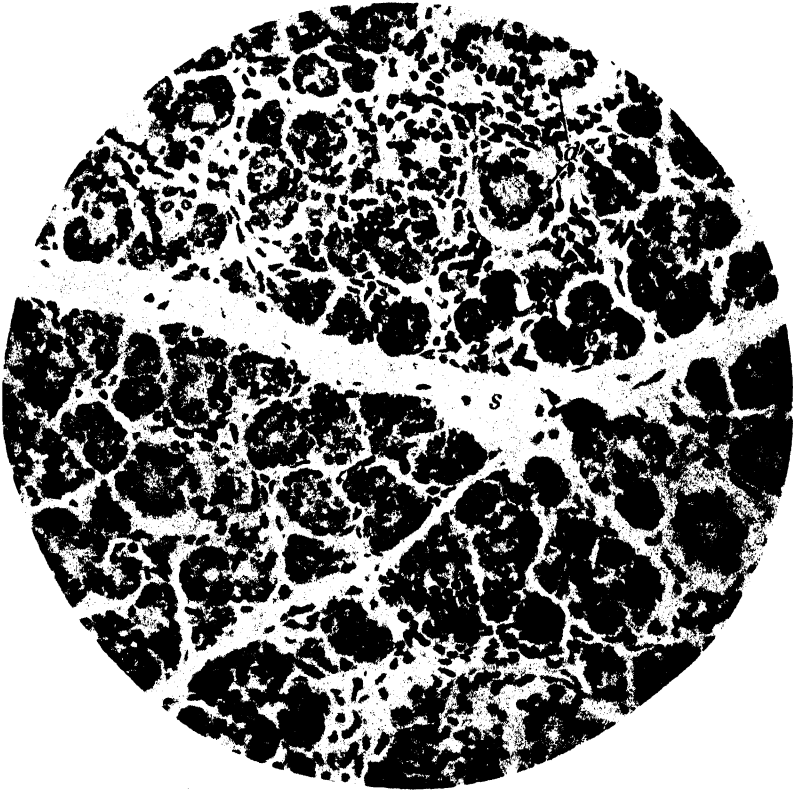


FIG. 421.—HUMAN PAROTID GLAND. (Preparation, H. M. Carleton; photograph, E. H. Leach.) $\times 230$.

The bulk of the field is covered with serous alveoli; *d*, two small ducts; *s*, inter-lobular septum of fine connective tissue.

ferment is formed from it when the secretion is poured out. Hence it has been termed *zymogen* (mother of ferment). As Langley showed, the outer part of each cell becomes clear and free from granules after secretion. When the gland is stimulated naturally the change is found to occur in certain cells and not in others.

The cells lining the ducts of the ordinary glands are also occupied by granules which are found to alter in number and size with varying states of secretion (fig. 425).

The chief histological differences between serous and mucous cells are :

- (i) Serous alveoli and cells are smaller than the mucous ones ;
- (ii) The nuclei of the serous cells tend to be spherical, those of the latter crescentic and to lie against the cell-membrane at the periphery of the alveolus ;
- (iii) Serous cells stain darkly in the ordinary section ; mucous cells appear clear owing to their mucin not being stained by ordinary methods.

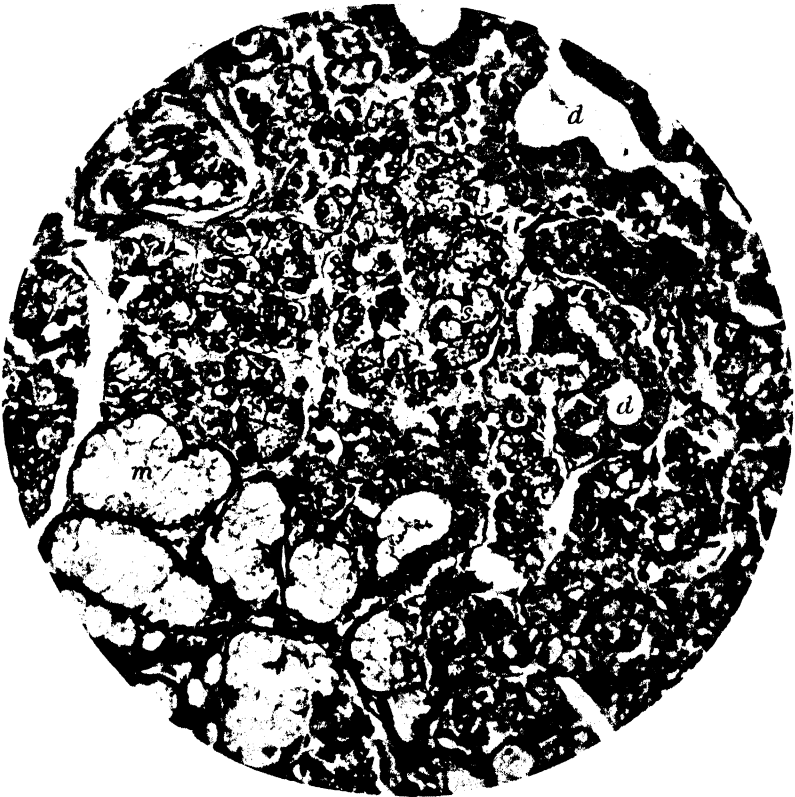


FIG. 422.—HUMAN SUBMAXILLARY GLAND. (Preparation, H. M. Carleton ; photograph E. H. Leach.) $\times 230$.

A mixed gland with a marked preponderance of serous (*s*) over mucous alveoli (*m*) ; *d*, a duct.

The *parotid glands* are composed in nearly all mammals of serous alveoli only. In man, however, a few mucous alveoli are found around the main duct.

The *submaxillary gland* in man and most mammals is mixed (fig. 422) : both serous and mucous alveoli (the latter having crescents) are present, although *serous* alveoli preponderate. In the guinea-pig the alveoli of the submaxillary are all of the serous type.

The *human sublingual gland* is likewise mixed, but *mucous* alveoli are the more numerous: many of these show crescents at their margins.

When the glands are unravelled and examined with the microscope it is

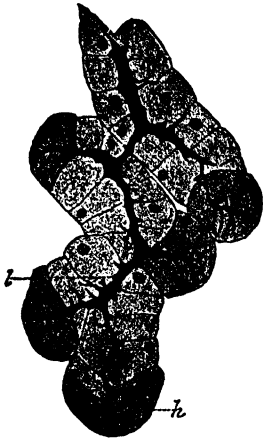


FIG. 423.—ALVEOLI OF HUMAN SUBLINGUAL GLAND PREPARED BY THE GOLGI METHOD. (E. Müller.)

l, lumen stained, with lateral diverticula passing between and into mucus-secreting cells; *h*, longer diverticula penetrating into the 'crescent' cells.

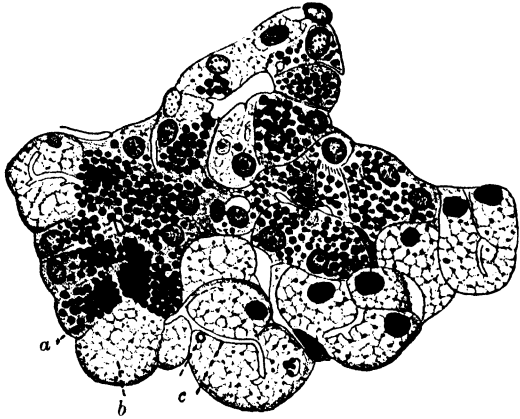


FIG. 424.—SUBMAXILLARY GLAND OF RABBIT. (E. Müller.)

The cells, which are all serous, are in different functional states, as indicated by the condition and staining of the granules. *a*, cell filled with darkly stained granules; *b*, clear cell; *c*, secretory canaliculi penetrating into the cells.

found that the mucous and serous alveoli are somewhat different in shape, the mucous alveoli being larger, more uniform in shape, and linked on to the ducts by shorter and wider intermediate or junctional portions (compare

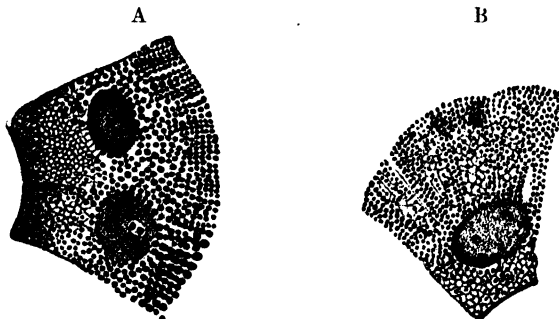


FIG. 425.—CELLS FROM DUCT OF PAROTID.

A, prior to secretion; B, after secretion. (Mislowski and Smirnow.)

fig. 426, A, which is from a mucous part of the human submaxillary, with B, from a serous part).

The largest ducts have a wall of connective tissue outside the basement

membrane, and also a few plain muscle-cells. They are lined for some distance from their orifice in the mouth by a continuation of the stratified epithelium of the buccal mucous membrane.

The blood-vessels of the gland form a capillary network around each alveolus. The lymphatics commence in the form of lacunar vessels in the

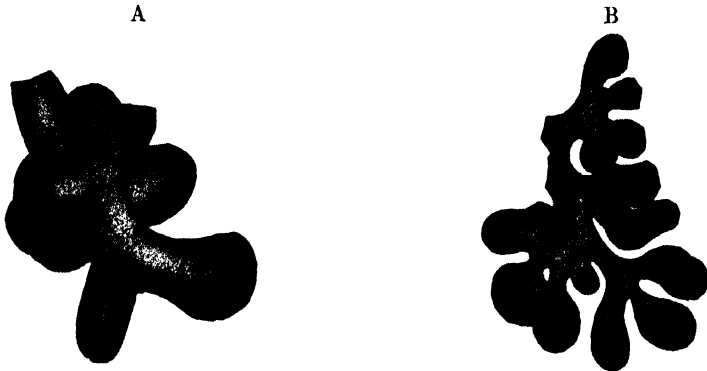


FIG. 426.—ALVEOLI FROM HUMAN SUBMAXILLARY GLAND, PARTLY UNRAVELLED. (Peiser.)

A, from a 'mucous' portion; B, from a 'serous' portion of the gland.

areolar tissue between the alveoli. Lymph-nodules are occasionally found in the interstitial connective tissue, especially in the parotid gland. The nerves of the gland are derived both from the cranial and the parasympathetic nerves; the former pass through ganglia before proceeding to their distribution. They ramify as fine varicose fibrils amongst the alveolar cells and many are distributed to the blood-vessels.

DEVELOPMENT.

The salivary glands are developed as buds from the epithelium of the buccal cavity, at first solid but gradually becoming hollowed out. They are thus endodermal in origin. To begin with they are simple, but undergo ramification as they extend into the mucous membrane and submucous tissue.

LESSON XXXI.

THE STOMACH.

1. EXAMINE vertical longitudinal sections through the cardia, including the lower end of the œsophagus and the adjacent cardiac portion of the stomach. These are intended to show the abrupt transition of the stratified epithelium of the

œsophagus into the columnar epithelium of the stomach, and also the character of the gastric and œsophageal glands in the immediate neighbourhood of the cardia.

2. Examine sections of the fundus of the stomach cut perpendicularly to the surface of the mucous membrane.

In these sections the general arrangement of the coats of the stomach is studied. Sketches are to be made under a low power illustrating this arrangement, and under a high power showing the structure of the glands.

3. Examine sections of the mucous membrane of the fundus, cut parallel to the surface. These will show better than the others the arrangement of the cells in the glands.

4. Examine vertical sections of the mucous membrane from the pyloric region of the stomach. In a section taken longitudinally through the pylorus, the transition of the gastric glands into the glands of Brünner of the duodenum will be manifest. Make a sketch under a low power of one of the pyloric glands in its whole length, filling up some of the details with the high power.

For 1, 2, 3 and 4 the tissue is fixed with 5 per cent. formol, or (preferably) with Susa. The best results are obtained after moderately distending the stomach with the fixative, and then immersing the whole organ in more of the same. If a whole stomach is not available, pieces from the various areas may be excised and pinned out flat with hedgehog quills on segments of paraffined cork.

5. The arrangement of the blood-vessels is studied in sections of the wall of a stomach the vessels of which have been injected.

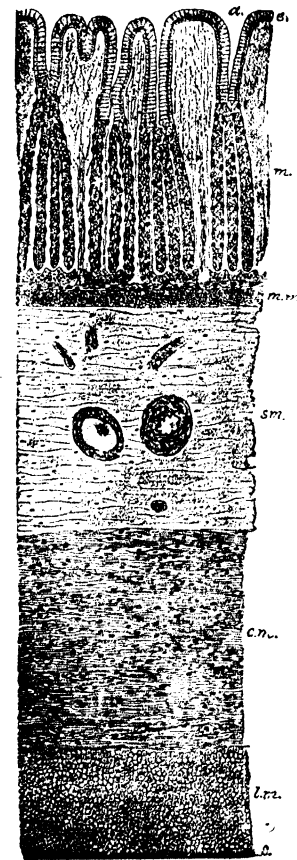


FIG. 427.—DIAGRAM OF SECTION THROUGH THE COATS OF THE STOMACH. (F. Mall.)

m, mucous membrane; *e*, epithelium; *d*, orifice of gland duct; *m.m.*, muscularis mucosae; *sm*, submucosa; *c.m.*, circular muscular layer; *l.m.*, longitudinal muscular layer; *s*, serous coat.

The wall of the **stomach** consists of four layers, which, enumerated from without in, are as follows: *serous, muscular, areolar or submucous, and mucous* (fig. 427).

(i) The *serous coat* is a layer derived from the peritoneum. It is deficient along the lines of the lesser and greater curvatures.

(ii) The *muscular coat* consists of three layers of plain muscular fibres arranged in bundles : those of the outer layer running longitudinally, those of the middle layer circularly, and those of the inner layer obliquely. The longitudinal and circular bundles become thicker and stronger towards the pylorus, and at the pylorus itself the circular layer is greatly thickened to form a sphincter muscle. The oblique fibres are best developed at the cardia where they form a sling-like bundle partially embracing that aperture (McSwiney). As the bundles of oblique fibres are traced forwards they become thinner and, curving downwards, blend with the circular fibres of the middle layer. There

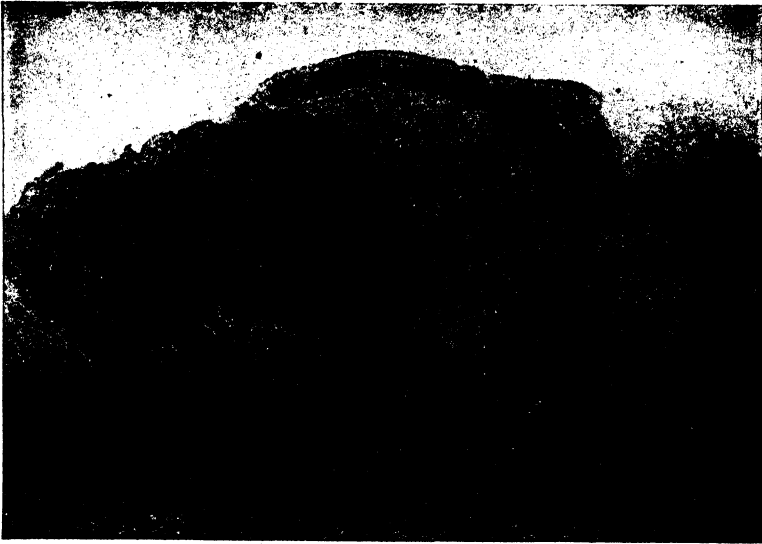


FIG. 428.—SECTION OF THE WALL OF THE STOMACH OF THE DOG AT THE PLACE WHERE THE STRATIFIED EPITHELIUM OF THE OESOPHAGUS IS CONTINUED INTO THE COLUMNAR EPITHELIUM OF THE GASTRIC MUCOUS MEMBRANE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.

is a gangliated nerve-plexus between the longitudinal and circular layers of muscle, corresponding with the plexus of Auerbach of the intestine (p. 364).

(iii) The *areolar* or *submucous coat* is a layer of areolar tissue, serving to unite the mucous membrane loosely to the muscular coat, and in which ramify the larger branches of the blood-vessels and lymphatics.

The submucous coat contains a gangliated nerve-plexus, similar to and corresponding with the plexus of Meissner of the intestine.

(iv) The *mucous membrane* is in man a soft thick layer, generally corrugated in the empty condition of the organ. Its inner surface is covered by columnar cells, all of which secrete mucus. The formation of the latter, in contrast with that produced by the mucous cells of the salivary glands, is continuous ; when mucus production is very active, the outer poles of the cells may be

cast off with the secretory product—much in the same way as in the active mammary gland. These cells contain two groups of filamentous mitochondria—one at the free, the other at the attached, poles of the cells. There is also a Golgi apparatus lying close to, or around, the nucleus.

The columnar surface-cells are prolonged into the ducts of the glands (fig. 429), but when these divide to form the tubules the cells become shorter, and lose their mucus-secreting character, although an occasional cell of the



FIG. 429.—VERTICAL SECTION OF CARDIA OF STOMACH (CHILD). $\times 100$.
(Preparation by F. Haynes.)

c, crypt; c.g., cardiac glands; m.m., muscularis mucosae.

same character may be seen lower down. On the other hand, both oxyntic and central cells (see below) are sometimes seen between the columnar epithelium-cells of the ducts. Where the œsophagus passes into the stomach the stratified epithelium lining the gullet gives place abruptly to the columnar epithelium of the stomach (fig. 428).

In some animals (*e.g.*, rat) the stratified epithelium of the œsophagus is continued over a more or less extensive tract of the gastric mucous membrane, but always ends by a similar sharply defined line.

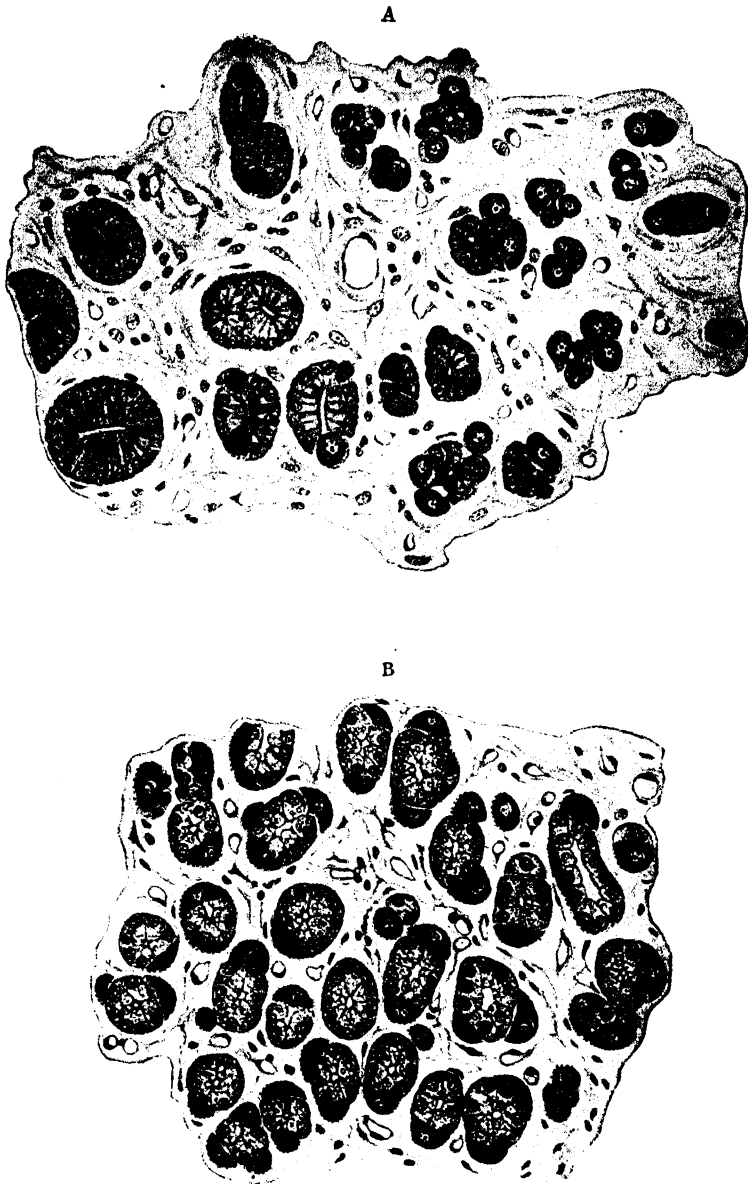


FIG. 430.—SECTIONS OF THE MUCOUS MEMBRANE OF THE FUNDUS OF THE DOG'S STOMACH ACROSS THE LONG AXIS OF THE GLANDS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

- A, Section close to but not quite parallel with the surface, including on the left the gland-ducts and on the right the commencing gland-tubules. Notice the rounded oxyntic or acid-forming cells of the glands. They already begin to appear between the columnar cells of the ducts.
- B, Deeper part, showing the lamina of the gland-tubules surrounded by principal or pepsin-yielding cells, with the oxyntic cells altogether outside them.

The thickness of the gastric mucous membrane is due to the fact that it is largely made up of tubular glands opening upon the inner surface, but, as in all hollow viscera, the thickness or thinness depends to a large extent upon the state of distension. Between the glands the mucous membrane is formed of reticular tissue with many leucocytes and basiphil connective-tissue cells in its meshes. Externally the mucous membrane is bounded

by the *muscularis mucosæ*, consisting of an outer longitudinal and an inner circular layer of plain muscular fibres. The inner layer sends strands of muscle towards the surface between the glands.

Gastric glands.—These are formed of a basement-membrane lined with epithelium. Each gland consists of *secreting tubules*, from one to four in number, opening at the surface into a larger tube, the *duct* of the gland. The duct is in all cases lined by mucus-secreting epithelium of the same character as that which covers the inner surface of the mucous membrane, but the epithelium of the secreting tubules is different from this, and also differs somewhat in the glands of different regions of the organ. The following varieties of gastric glands are met with:—

(1) **Glands of the cardia.**—These are comparatively few in number. They are usually found only close to the œsophageal opening (cardia) and are of two kinds: (a) simple tubules, similar in their general structure to the crypts of Lieberkühn of the intestine, and (b) small tubulo-racemose glands (fig. 429). The latter are commonest in man; the former occur in considerable number in certain animals. The secreting tubules of the racemose glands are lined by cells which are granular in appearance and of a short columnar form, and of the same nature throughout the length of the tubule, except near the orifice of the duct,

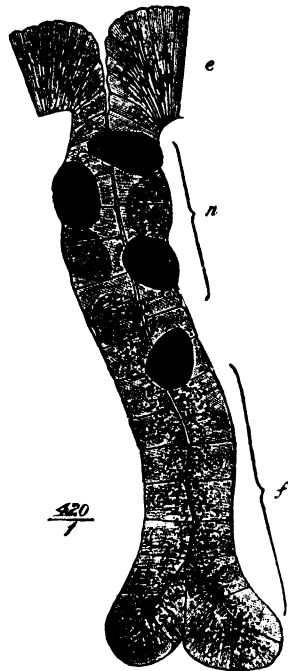


FIG. 431.—A FUNDUS GLAND OF SIMPLE FORM FROM THE BAT'S STOMACH. Osmic acid preparation. (Langley.)

e, columnar epithelium of the surface; *n*, neck of the gland with central and parietal cells; *f*, base occupied only by principal or central cells, which exhibit the granules accumulated towards the lumen of the gland.

where they give place to columnar mucus-secreting cells.

(2) **Glands of the fundus** (figs. 430 to 433).—In these glands the tubules are usually relatively long and the duct short. The epithelium of the tubules is mainly composed of two kinds of cells, termed from their relative position in the tubules the *central* and the *parietal* cells.

Central cells.—These are of two types. Those of the first type, which are the best known, are not stained by hæmatoxylin, although in aniline-blue stained sections their cytoplasm shows itself strongly basiphil. The nucleus is spherical and generally near the middle of the cell. In the fresh resting

gland and with certain methods of fixation, the cytoplasm is seen to contain distinct zymogen granules most numerous near the inner zone (fig. 431). In addition to these granules filamentous and rodded mitochondria are present. There is also a small Golgi apparatus, variable in appearance. After a period of secretory activity the granules diminish in number, and the clear outer zone encroaches upon the granular inner zone (Langley), as in the analogous cases of the pancreas and parotid glands. It is believed that the

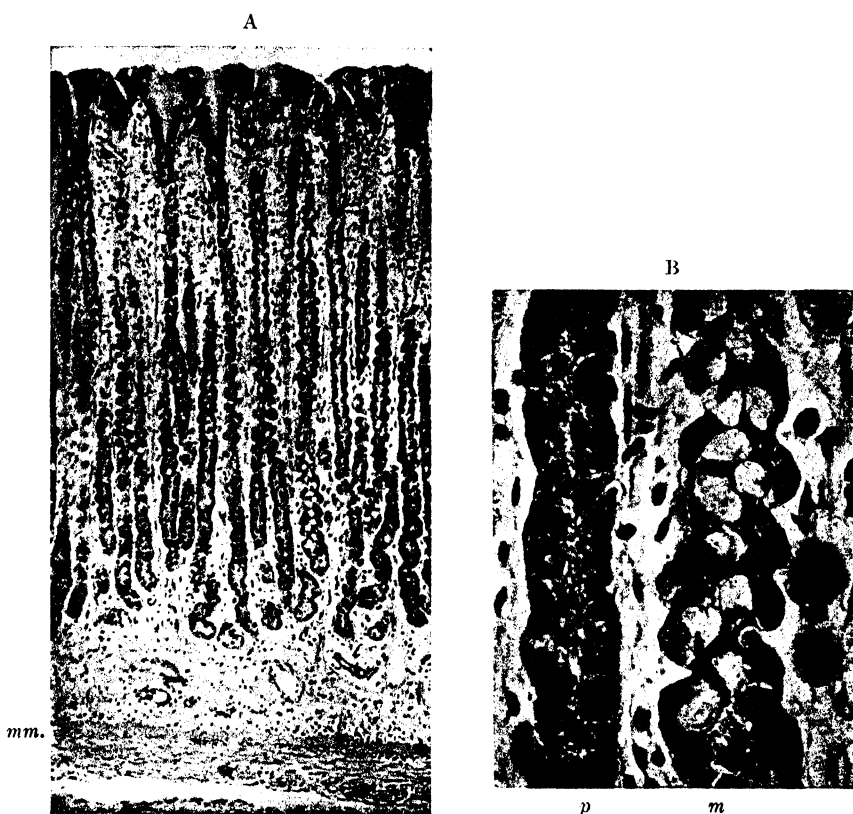


FIG. 432.—PHOTOGRAPH OF A VERTICAL SECTION OF THE MUCOUS MEMBRANE OF THE FUNDUS OF THE CAT'S STOMACH, SHOWING THE GLANDS CUT LONGITUDINALLY. From preparations by R. K. S. Lim.

A, magnified 75 diameters; *mm.*, muscularis mucosæ. B, a portion of A magnified 400 diameters. *p*, a gland containing 'peptic' cells; *m*, a gland containing 'mucoid' cells; both show oxyntic cells at the periphery.

granules in question contain pepsinogen, which is converted into pepsin when discharged. These cells (of the first type) may therefore be appropriately termed the *peptic cells* of the fundic glands.

The central cells of the second type are quite different in appearance and staining reactions from those just described. They are larger and clearer and are coloured blue by Mallory, like mucin-containing cells; whereas the cytoplasm of the peptic cell is coloured yellowish brown by that stain. They

occur either in a scattered form wedged in between the other cells, or there may be a number together, occupying a considerable length of a tubule (as in fig. 432, B, *m*). The cytoplasm has no obvious granules: the nucleus is either flattened against or wedged into the attached end of the cell. To this second type of central cell the name *mucoïd cell* is given (R. K. S. Lim).

Parietal cells.—Scattered along the tubule, lying between the central cells and the basement-membrane, are a number of large spheroidal or ovoidal



FIG. 433.—PART OF TUBULE OF A FUNDUS GLAND, WITH THE LUMEN AND SECRETORY CANALICULI STAINED BLACK; THE GLAND-CELLS ARE ALSO SHOWN. (Zimmermann.)

c, *c*, central cells; *p*, *p*, parietal or oxyntic cells; *l*, lumen of tubule prolonged into arborescent canaliculi which penetrate into the parietal cells.



FIG. 434.—PYLORIC GLANDS, HUMAN. (E. Sharpey - Schafer.) $\times 60$. Photograph. Preparation by Martin Heidenhain.

cells, each with a round nucleus near its centre. These are the *parietal* cells; also known as *oxyntic*, having been so named by Langley because they are generally believed to be concerned in the production of the hydrochloric acid of the gastric secretion. Each of these cells is penetrated by a network of minute passages, communicating with the lumen of the gland by a fine canal, which passes between the central cells (fig. 433). Their mitochondria are very distinct and numerous: most of them take the form of short rods. The Golgi apparatus forms a net around the nucleus. The oxyntic cells are sometimes present in the neck of the gland or even at the surface of the

stomach ; in these places they are wedged in between the ordinary epithelium-cells (fig. 430, A).

(3) **Glands of the pyloric canal** (fig. 434).—In the glands of the pyloric canal the ducts are much longer than those of the fundus glands, and the secreting tubules possess cells of only one kind. These appear to correspond with the ' mucoid ' cells of the fundus glands which have been above described as possessing flattened basal nuclei. They have an indistinctly granular appearance and are said to yield pepsin to the gastric juice, but are different from the ' peptic ' cells of the fundus glands. They are also quite unlike

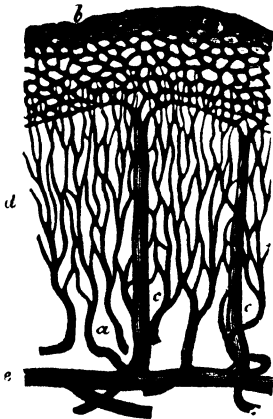


FIG. 435.—PLAN OF THE BLOOD-VESSELS OF THE STOMACH. (Modified from Brinton.)

a, small arteries passing to break up into the fine capillary network, *d*, between the glands; *b*, coarser capillary network around the mouth of the glands; *c*, *c*, veins passing vertically downwards from the superficial network; *e*, larger vessels in the submucosa.

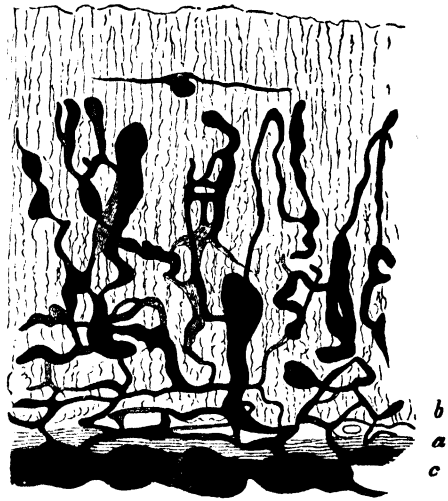


FIG. 436.—LYMPHATICS OF THE HUMAN GASTRIC MUCOUS MEMBRANE, INJECTED. (Lövén.)

The tubules are only faintly indicated; *a*, muscularis mucosæ; *b*, plexus of fine vessels at base of glands; *c*, plexus of larger valved lymphatics in submucosa.

the epithelium of the surface and ducts, which is formed, as elsewhere, of long tapering cells, the outer part of which is filled with mucin, and the nuclei of which are ovoid and centrally situated. In man it is, however, only quite near the pylorus that parietal cells are altogether absent. They have been occasionally seen in Brünner's glands of the duodenum.

At the pylorus itself the gastric glands, which are of the same type as those of the pyloric canal, become considerably lengthened and enlarged, and are continued into the submucous tissue (the muscularis mucosæ being here deficient); they present transitions to the glands of Brünner, which lie in the submucous tissue of the duodenum (fig. 441).

There is experimental evidence of the extension of the pyloric glands into the duodenum to form the glands of Brünner (p. 367). Florey and Harding (1935) excised the duodenal mucosa down to the circular muscle layer. Regeneration occurred both of the cells of Brünner's glands and of the mucosa, but the latter, when reformed, was histologically identical with the

surface epithelium of the stomach. Regeneration of both the glands and the epithelium probably originates from the intact glands adjacent to the excised area.

The blood-vessels of the stomach are abundant; they pass to the organ along its curvatures. The arteries traverse the muscular coat, giving off branches to the capillary network of the muscular tissue; they then ramify in the submucous coat. From the arterial branches here, small tortuous arterioles pierce the muscularis mucosæ, and break up into capillaries near the bases of the glands (fig. 435). The capillary network extends between the glands to the surface, close to which it terminates in a plexus of relatively large venous capillaries which encircle the mouths of the glands. From this plexus straight venous radicles pass through the mucous membrane, pierce the muscularis mucosæ, and join a plexus of veins in the submucous coat. From these veins blood is carried away from the stomach by efferent veins, which accompany the entering arteries.

The lymphatics (fig. 436) arise in the mucous membrane as a plexus of large vessels dilated at intervals, and looking in sections like clefts in the interglandular tissue. From this plexus the lymph is carried into larger valved vessels in the submucous coat, and, from these, efferent vessels run through the muscular coat to reach the serous membrane, underneath which they pass away from the organ. The muscular coat has its own network of lymphatic vessels. These lie between the two principal layers; their lymph is poured into the efferent lymphatics of the organ.

The nerves are mostly derived from the vagi, but branches of the sympathetic also pass to the stomach. They are connected with gangliated plexuses in the muscular and submucous coats, similar to the plexuses of Auerbach and of Meissner of the intestine.

LESSONS XXXII. AND XXXIII.

THE SMALL AND LARGE INTESTINE.

PORTIONS of intestine from different parts should be fixed in Susa (preferably) or 5 per cent. neutral formol. It is best to distend them slightly with the fixative before immersing them in more of it. This applies not only to the intestine but to all hollow viscera.

1. Examine transverse sections of the duodenum, jejunum, and ileum. The three parts of the intestine may be embedded in the same paraffin block, and the sections stained and mounted together. Choose a part of the duodenum not far from the pylorus and a part of the ileum which includes a Peyer's patch. Observe the nodules of lymphoid tissue which constitute the patch and which extend into the submucous tissue. Notice the leucocytes in the superjacent epithelium. Notice also the sinus-like lymphatic or lacteal vessel which encircles the base of each nodule. In the duodenum, study the glands of Brünner in the submucous tissue. Make a general sketch of each section under a low power and draw a villus under the high power. The general arrangement and structure of the intestinal wall is to be studied in these sections.

2. Examine sections parallel to the surface of the intestine, and therefore across the long axis of the villi and glands of the mucous membrane. In order to keep the sections of the villi together, that they are not lost in the mounting, it is necessary either to embed in celloidin or, if paraffin is used, to employ an adhesive method of mounting (see Appendix). Such segments of intestine should be slit open and pinned out with hedgehog quills, the mucosa upwards, on a piece of paraffined cork before immersing in the fixative. Sketch a villus and some of the crypts of Lieberkühn.

3. To study the process of fat absorption, kill a frog two or three days after feeding with bacon fat. Slightly distend a short length of small intestine with a mixture of 2 parts Müller's fluid and 1 part osmic acid solution (1 per cent.); put the piece into a fairly large quantity of the same mixture. Also place a very small shred of the fresh mucous membrane into 0.5 per cent. osmic acid solution. After forty-eight hours teased preparations may be made from this preparation, in the same manner as directed in Lesson VIII., § 1. The piece in Müller and osmic acid is left for ten days or more in the fluid. Sections are then made by the freezing method and mounted in glycerine.

4. Fat absorption may also be studied in the mammal (rat, cat) by treating similarly a small piece of intestine, the animal having been killed three or four hours after a meal containing fat.

5. Examine sections of small intestine the blood-vessels of which have been injected. Sketch the arrangement of the vessels of a villus.

6. Stain a short piece of intestine of a rabbit or guinea-pig with gold chloride. It should be washed through with Ringer's solution and distended with a 1 per cent. solution of gold chloride, being then placed in a larger quantity of the same solution. After half an hour it may be cut open, washed with water and placed in a large amount of water faintly acidulated with acetic acid and exposed to sunlight. Twenty-four hours later, by which time it should be stained, tear off broad strips of the longitudinal muscular coat, and mount them in glycerine. It will generally

be found that portions of the nervous plexus of Auerbach remain adherent to the strips; the plexus can in this way be studied.

From the remainder of the piece of intestine tear off with forceps the fibres of the circular muscular layer on the one side, and the mucous membrane on the other side, so as to leave only the submucous tissue and the muscularis mucosæ, which

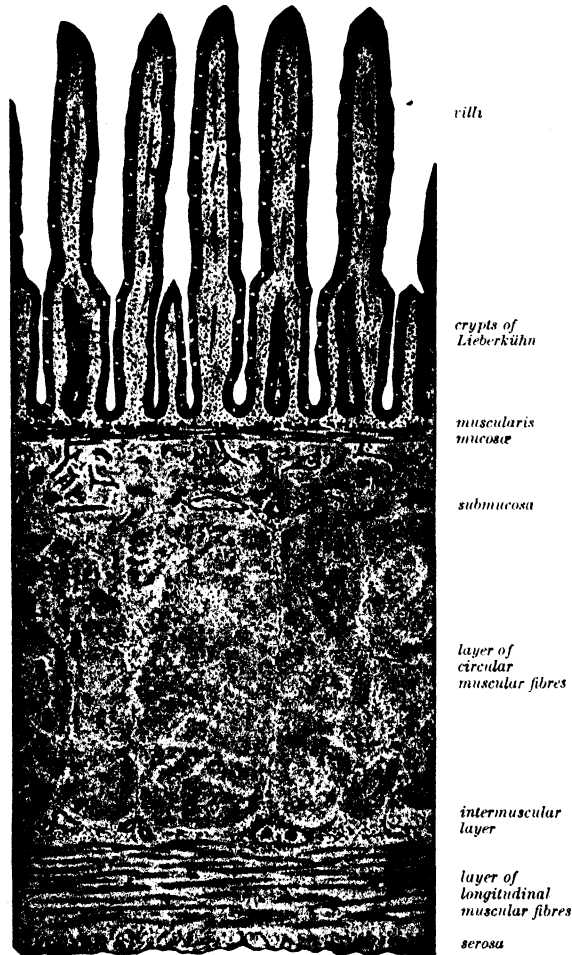


FIG. 437.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF THE SMALL INTESTINE (JEJUNUM) OF CAT (SEMI-DIAGRAMMATIC). (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 40$.

is to be mounted flat in glycerine; it contains the plexus of Meissner. Sketch a small portion of each plexus under a high power.

The plexuses can also be shown by the reduced silver method of Cajal (see Appendix).

7. Examine sections of large intestine from different parts (cæcum, colon, rectum) perpendicular to the surface, also sections of the vermiform appendix; all these should, if possible, be human or monkey. Make sketches under a low power.

8. Examine sections of the mucous membrane of the large intestine parallel to

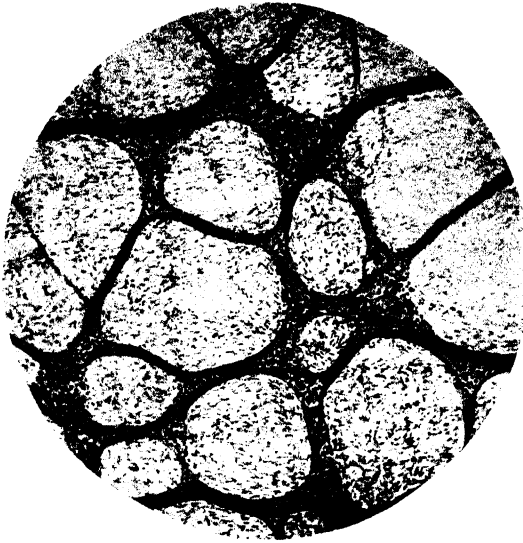


FIG. 438.—SURFACE VIEW OF AUERBACH'S PLEXUS AFTER STRIPPING AWAY THE MUCOSA. (Bielschowsky preparation by Prof. Bulloch. Photograph by Wm. Chesterman.)
 × 50.

The nerve cells form dense, angular masses, interconnected by thick strands of myelinated fibres.



FIG. 439.—HIGH POWER VIEW OF ONE OF THE CELL MASSES OF FIG. 438. (Prof. Bulloch and Wm. Chesterman.)

One of the large ganglion cells and its processes can be seen. The pale and elongated nuclei in the background are those of the muscle-fibres of the longitudinal muscle layer.

the surface, and therefore across the glands. Sketch some of the glands and the interglandular tissue under a high power.

9. The arrangement of the blood-vessels of the large intestine is studied in sections of the injected organ.

THE SMALL INTESTINE.

The wall of the **small intestine** consists of four layers (fig. 437).

(i) The *serous coat* is complete except over part of the duodenum. It leaves the intestine at the line of attachment of the mesentery, between the folds of which the blood- and lymph-vessels and nerves pass to and from the organ. Such folds contain fat in varying amounts.

(ii) The *muscular coat* is composed of two layers of muscular tissue, an outer thinner longitudinal and an inner thicker circular. Between them lies a network of lymphatic vessels, and also the close gangliated plexus of amyelinate nerve-fibres known as the *plexus myentericus* of Auerbach. The ganglia of this plexus may usually be seen in vertical sections of the intestinal wall (figs. 437, 441) after staining by ordinary methods—*e.g.*, hæmatoxylin and eosin; the plexus itself, however (like the one in the submucous coat immediately to be described), can only be properly displayed in preparations made by special methods (figs. 438, 439).

The nerve cells of this plexus exhibit finely dispersed Nissl substance (Stöhr).

(iii) The *submucous coat*, like that of the stomach, is composed of loose areolar tissue. In it the blood-vessels and lacteals ramify before entering or after leaving the mucous membrane. It contains a gangliated plexus of nerve-fibres—the *plexus of Meissner*—which is finer than that of Auerbach and has fewer cells. Its branches are chiefly supplied to the muscular fibres of the mucous membrane, but also to the glands and villi.

The cells of these 'enteric' gangliated plexuses are in many respects different from those of ordinary sympathetic ganglia. They appear to be of two distinct kinds. One kind has a number of much branched and comparatively short dendrons and an unbranched process recognisable as the axon; the other kind is characterised by the presence of a number of long processes very little branched and hardly distinguishable from axons. C. J. Hill states that the first type of cell is intercalary; the second type, with long dendrons, is motor. It is the only one found in Meissner's plexus, but both kinds are present in Auerbach's.

(iv) The *mucous membrane* is bounded next to the submucous coat by a thin but double (outer longitudinal and inner circular) layer of plain muscular fibres—the *muscularis mucosa*. Bundles from this pass towards the inner surface of the gut and also run up into the villi. The mucous membrane proper is pervaded with simple tubular glands—the *crypts of Lieberkühn* (figs. 437, 441)—which are lined throughout by columnar epithelium, with scattered goblet-cells, like that which covers the general surface and the villi.

In addition to the columnar and goblet cells two other—and much rarer—types of cell must be mentioned.

Paneth cells.—These form a small mass at the blind extremity of the crypts in the small intestine. These cells each contain a group of large

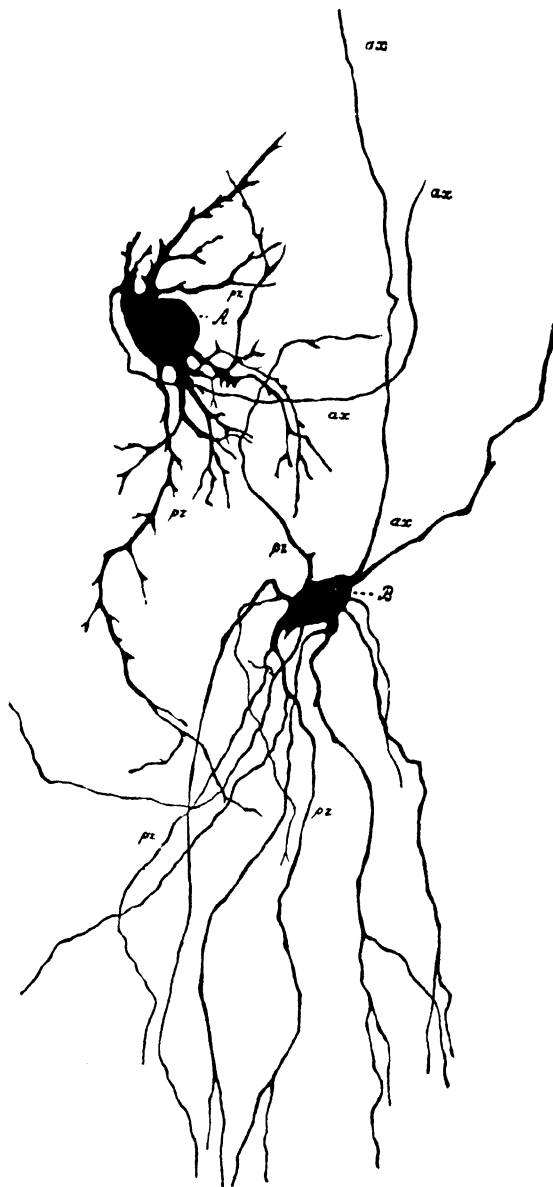


FIG. 440.—TYPICAL NERVE-CELLS FROM ENTERIC GANGLIA. (Dogiel.)

A, cell with numerous minute ramified dendrons; B, cell with numerous almost unbranched axon-like dendrons; ax, axons; pz, dendrons.

oxyphil granules which (unless special methods of fixation are employed) are dissolved, thus leaving vacuoles in their place. The granules diminish

in numbers during digestion (Klein). The function of the Paneth cells is unknown.

Kultschitzky cells (also known as enterochromaffin cells)—These are rarer

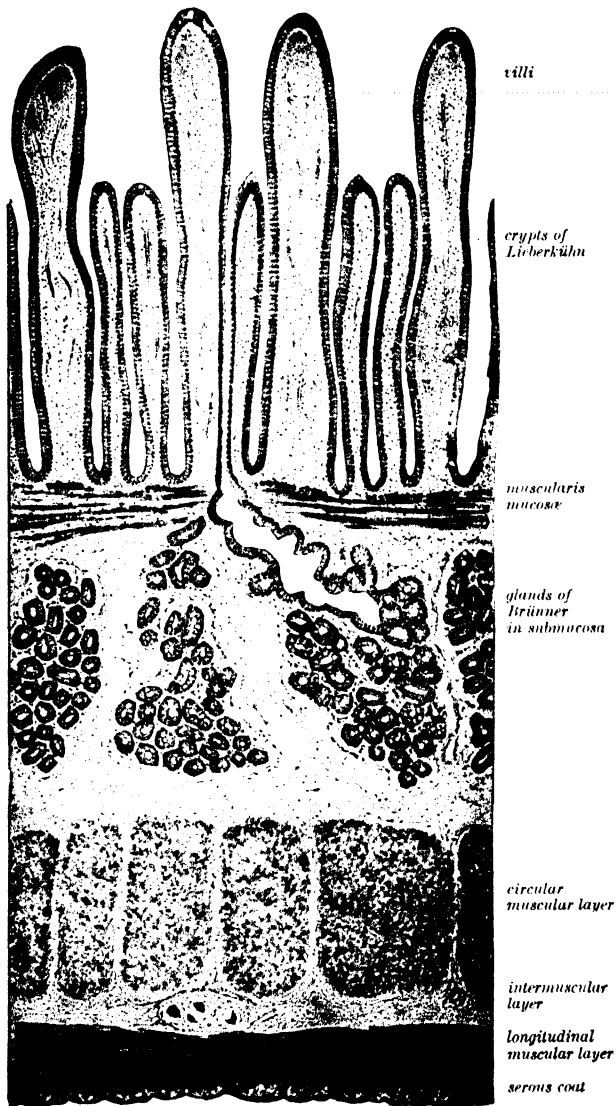


FIG. 441.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF DUODENUM OF CAT, SHOWING BRÜNNER'S GLANDS (SEMI-DIAGRAMMATIC). (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 60$.

In the intermuscular layer, and slightly to the left of the centre, are three ganglion cells of Auerbach's plexus.

than the Paneth cells but, like these, are found in the crypts. Kultschitzky cells are usually solitary and often irregular in shape; they contain basiphil granules situated between the nucleus and the basal membrane; further-

more, they are present in the large as well as in the small intestine. This is in contrast with the Paneth cells, which are present in the small intestine only. Kultschitzky cells have a marked affinity for certain methods of silver staining and are best demonstrated thereby. The great deal that has been written about the function of these rare yet constant elements must be regarded as speculation rather than fact.

The cells of the crypts often show karyokinesis; it is probable that the epithelium of the general surface becomes regenerated from that of the glands. The mucous membrane between the glands is mainly composed of reticular tissue, with numerous leucocytes; the latter are aggregated here and there into nodules of lymphoid tissue. These nodules constitute, when they occur singly, the so-called *solitary glands* of the intestine; when

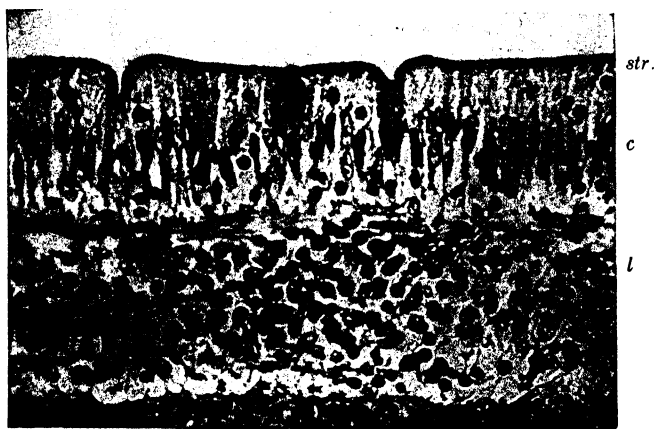


FIG. 442.—PART OF THE WALL OF A VILLUS. $\times 400$.

c, columnar epithelium-cells; leucocytes are seen between them; *str.* their striated border; *l*, lymphoid tissue of villus. One or two goblet cells are seen between the columnar cells.

agglomerated, the *agminated glands* or *patches of Peyer*. The latter occur chiefly in the ileum (fig. 450).

The **glands of Brünner** occur in the duodenum. They are small racemose glands, situated in the submucosa (fig. 441); they send their ducts to the inner surface of the mucous membrane either between the crypts of Lieberkühn or into them. They may be easily distinguished from the crypts by the fact that they lie *external* to the muscularis mucosæ, *i.e.*, between it and the inner, circular muscle layer. In man Brünner's glands generally disappear in the distal two-thirds of the duodenum.

It has been shown (Florey and Harding, 1934; 1935) that the cells of these glands contain varying amounts of mucin; the secretion is sticky, viscous and alkaline; it contains bicarbonate in addition to the mucin. The stimulation to secretion is blood-borne (*i.e.*, hormonal) as is evidenced by complete denervation of a segment of duodenum. In most animal species the ingestion of food increases the volume of the secretion. So likewise

does vagal stimulation. (For the relationship between Brünner's and the pyloric glands, see p. 359).

The villi with which the whole of the inner surface of the small intestine is closely beset are tongue-shaped, finger-shaped or filiform projections of the mucous membrane, and are composed, like that, of reticular tissue covered with columnar epithelium (figs. 442 to 445). The character of this epithelium has been described (Lesson VIII.). Between and at the base of the epithelium-cells many leucocytes occur, as well as in the meshes of the reticular tissue. These are mostly lymphocytes with some eosinophils. During digestion many of the former migrate into the lumen of the bowel and are there destroyed. The epithelium rests upon a basement-membrane.



FIG. 443.—SECTION OF A VILLUS (CAT), SHOWING THE CLOSE RELATIONSHIP OF THE BLOOD-CAPILLARIES TO THE EPITHELIUM. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 400$.

e, columnar epithelium-cells, with some leucocytes between them; *c*, blood-capillary cut lengthways; *l*, lacteal. Numerous leucocytes are also seen in the tissue of the villus and in the lacteal.

In the middle of the villus is a lymphatic vessel, known as the central lacteal, which may be enlarged near its commencement; the enlargement is replaced in some animals by a network of small vessels. Surrounding the lacteal are fine bundles of plain muscular tissue prolonged from the muscularis mucosæ. The network of blood-capillaries (figs. 443, 447, 449) lies for the most part quite near the surface under the basement-membrane; it is supplied with blood by a small artery which joins the capillary network at the base of the villus; the corresponding vein generally arises near the free end of the villus.

The lymphatics or lacteals of the mucous membrane, after receiving the central lacteals of the villi, pour their contents into a plexus of large, valved lymphatics which lie in the submucous tissue and form sinuses around the bases of the lymphoid nodules. From the submucous tissue efferent vessels pass through the muscular coat, receiving the lymph from an intramuscular plexus of lymphatics, and are conveyed away between the layers of the mesentery.

Absorption.—Little or no change is microscopically detectable when water, salts and many other substances are absorbed under the influence of osmosis or diffusion gradients. But when the epithelial cells take an active part, as in the selective absorption of carbohydrates, fats and proteins, changes involving mitochondria and Golgi bodies can be seen (Lim ; Weiner). In the case of the absorption of carbohydrates and fats the study is facilitated by methods for their histochemical detection.

Carbohydrates.—It has been shown (Arnold) that glycogen is deposited in the intestinal epithelium of the frog during the absorption of glucose. The constant removal by conversion of glucose from the cytoplasm just internal to the striated border allows the continuous entry of glucose at a high diffusion gradient. At the basal pole of the cell the glycogen is presumably hydrolysed to glucose, the latter then diffusing into the blood or lymph streams.

This involves the assumption that an effective and physiologically potent barrier exists in the cell : for such a barrier must stop the diffusion of glucose from the basal to the apical pole of the cell ; it must further maintain a difference of conditions between the two poles of the cell so as to allow for the simultaneous synthesis and hydrolysis of glycogen. Glycogen has not been detected in the intestinal epithelium of mammals ; possibly its place is taken by hexose phosphate (Verzár).

Fats.—Particulate matter such as neutral fat globules, colloidal dye particles, carbon and even bacteria may be taken up by the intestinal epithelium (Von Moellendorf ; Onozaki). It would appear, however, from the work of Verzár that fat is not normally absorbed in this manner. The fat is first hydrolysed and then absorbed by the cell as soap or, more probably, as fatty acid—the latter forming a water-soluble complex with bile acids. Stainable fat has never been satisfactorily demonstrated in the striated border, but, internal to this, the fatty acid is apparently resynthesised to neutral fat which is globular in form. These droplets become larger and more numerous as absorption progresses and eventually they extend to the basal pole of the cell. Here they appear to be extruded into the underlying connective tissue, where the pumping movements of the villi force the fat through the walls of the lymphatics. It has been suggested that this transference of fat from epithelial cells to lymphatics is assisted (if not actually effected) by leucocytes ; there is, however, no satisfactory evidence for this view. It is probable that the cells which have been regarded as conveying the fat were either eosinophils or phagocytic cells in migration from the epithelium to the lumen of the gut (E. H. Leach).

Proteins.—These are probably absorbed as amino acids ; there seems little hope that histochemical detection of these or polypeptides will be possible. Changes in the mitochondria undoubtedly occur (C. Champy), and this must indicate a selective process of absorption of amino acids on the part of the epithelial cells.

The normal absorption of fats and carbohydrates may be affected by various factors. Thus, Verzár has shown that lack of the hormone of the adrenal cortex, lack of vitamin B or administration of monoiodoacetic acid

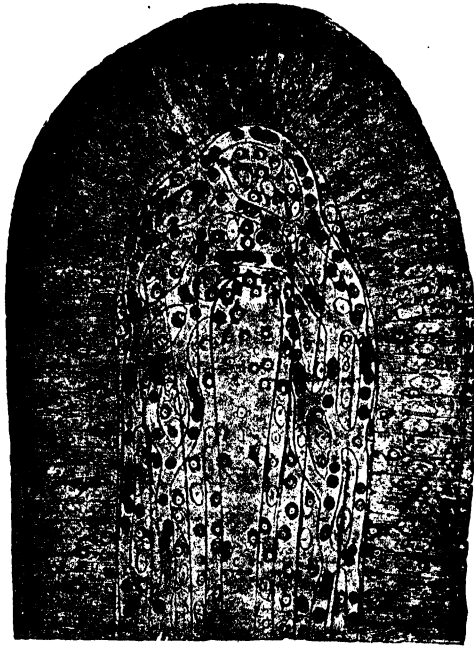


FIG. 444.—OPTICAL SECTION OF A VILLUS FROM A RAT KILLED THREE HOURS AFTER FEEDING WITH BREAD AND WATER.

The columnar epithelium shows numerous lymphocytes between the cells; l, lacteal, containing lymphocytes, c, some partly disintegrated.

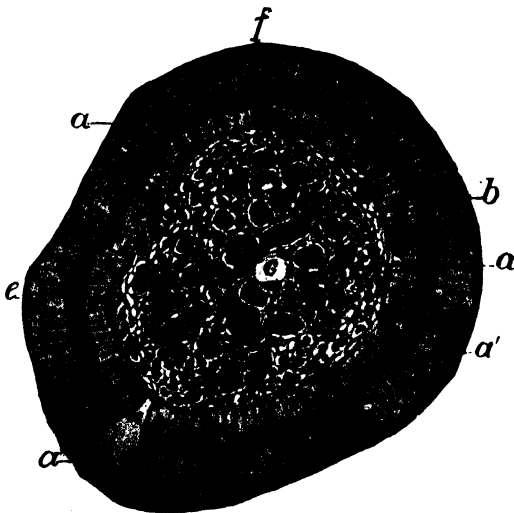


FIG. 445.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF A VILLUS OF FIG. (Trautmann.)

a, epithelium; a', striated border; a'', goblet-cell; b, lymphoid tissue; c, small central lacteal; e, plain muscle-fibres cut transversely; f, section of arteriole.

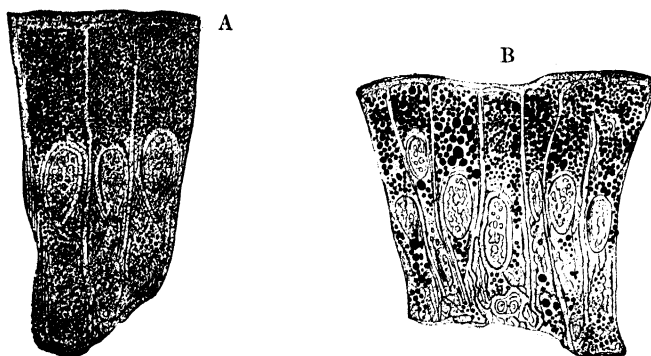


FIG. 446.—TWO STAGES IN THE DEPOSITION OF FAT IN THE INTESTINAL EPITHELIUM OF THE FROG. (Krehl.)

In A the fat is in very fine particles; in B most of it is aggregated into distinct globules. The black staining is due to the action of osmic acid.

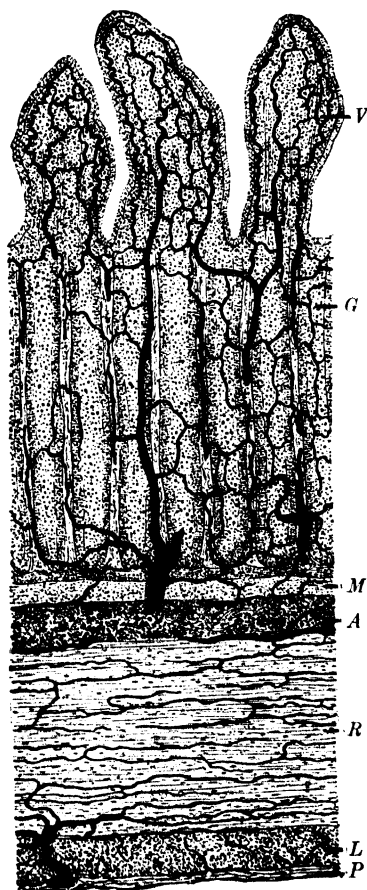


FIG. 447.—SMALL INTESTINE (VERTICAL TRANSVERSE SECTION), WITH THE BLOOD-VESSELS INJECTED. (Heitzmann.)

V, a villus; G, glands of Lieberkühn; M, muscularis mucosae; A, areolar coat; R, circular muscular coat; L, longitudinal muscular coat; P, peritoneal coat.

may reduce or prevent the resynthesis of neutral fat in the intestinal epithelium. The rate of absorption of fatty acids is greatly reduced, but they can still

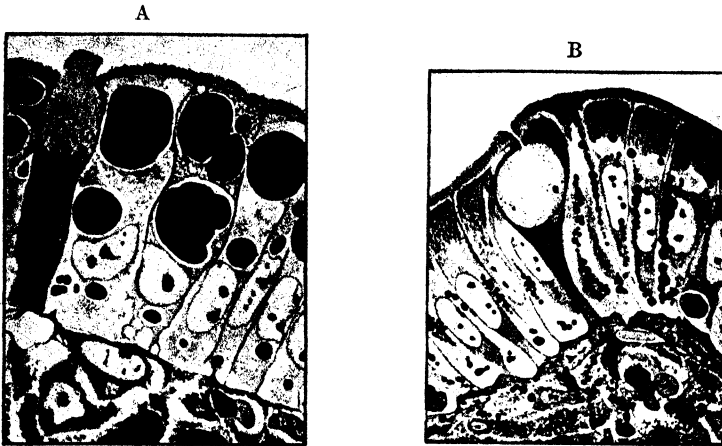


FIG. 448.—COLUMNAR EPITHELIUM CELLS OF VILLI DURING FAT ABSORPTION. (Mottram, Cramer and Drew.)

A. From an animal during absorption of a meal deficient in vitamin B.
B. From an animal during absorption of a meal rich in vitamin B.



FIG. 449.—VILLUS OF RAT WITH BLOOD-VESSELS INJECTED. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 210. Photograph.

diffuse through the cells. As a preliminary sign of such interference the fat is deposited in large instead of small globules while absorption is limited to

the tops of the villi. It has also been observed (Mottram, Cramer and Drew) when the food is lacking in vitamin A or B (fig. 448, A and B). A similar interference is caused by radium emanations.

The Golgi apparatus also appears to be concerned with the absorption of fat, for Cramer and Ludford (1925) noticed that when fat *plus* vitamin B is



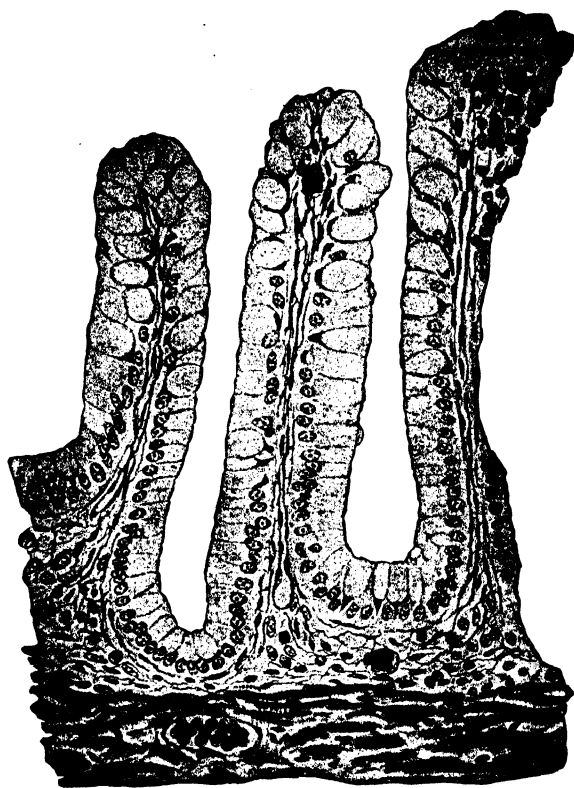
FIG. 450.—VERTICAL SECTION OF MUCOUS MEMBRANE OF ILEUM OF DOG.
(H. M. Carleton.) $\times 60$.

c, crypt; p, Peyer's patches projecting at x into the lumen of the bowel; s.m. submucosa; v, a villus.

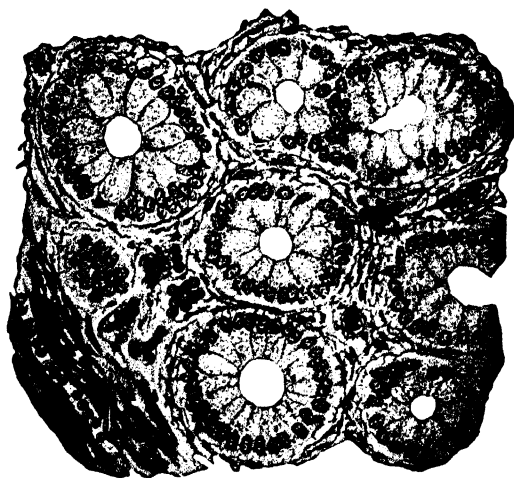
given with the food the Golgi apparatus enlarges and almost reaches the striated border of the columnar cell; they were unable to see changes in the mitochondria.

THE LARGE INTESTINE.

The **large intestine** has the usual four coats, except near its termination, where the serous coat is absent. In man and some other mammals the *muscular coat* is peculiar in the fact that along the cæcum and colon the



A



B

FIG. 451.—GLANDS OF THE LARGE INTESTINE OF A CHILD. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 300$.
A, in longitudinal section ; B, in transverse section.

longitudinal muscular fibres are gathered up into three thickened bands—the *tæniæ*: this produces characteristic puckerings in the wall of the gut.

The *mucous membrane* of the large intestine is beset with simple tubular

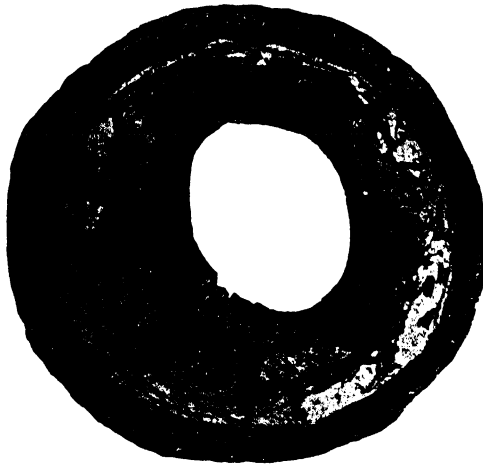


FIG. 452.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF HUMAN VERMIFORM APPENDIX. (G. Mann.)

glands somewhat resembling the crypts of Lieberkühn of the small intestine, and lined by columnar epithelium similar to that of the inner surface of the gut, but containing very many more mucus-secreting cells (fig. 451). Owing to



FIG. 453.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF RECTUM AND ANUS (MONKEY).
(H. M. Carleton.) $\times 3\frac{1}{2}$.

R, columnar epithelium of rectum; the central mass is one of the columns of Morgagni; SQ, squamous epithelium of anal canal, continuous externally with the skin (S); SP, external sphincter.

the absence of the villi a section of the large intestine may easily be distinguished from the small. The blind extremity of each gland is usually slightly dilated. These glands of the large intestine are not strictly homologous with the crypts of the small intestine, for whereas the latter are developed as depressions in the general surface between the villi, the glands of the large

intestine are formed by the growing together of villus-like projections of the surface. The interglandular tissue is a reticular tissue and is beset here and there with solitary lymph glands, especially in the cæcum.

The mucous membrane of the vermiform appendix (fig. 452) is characterised by the patchy distribution of the crypts; its submucosa by the abundant lymphoid nodules.

The arrangement of the blood-vessels and lymphatics in the large intestine is like that in the stomach. The nerves of the large intestine also resemble those of the stomach and small intestine in their mode of distribution.

Anus.—At the lower end of the rectum the circular muscular fibres of the gut become thickened a little above the anus to form the *internal sphincter* muscle.

In the anal region there are a number of compound racemose mucous glands opening on the surface of the mucous membrane—the *anal glands*. The anal canal has a highly pleated columnar epithelium, the longitudinal folds being known as the columns of Morgagni; the anal orifice itself, however, has a lining of stratified epithelium continuous with that of the skin.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DIFFERENT SEGMENTS OF THE INTESTINE.

SMALL INTESTINE.—Characteristic of all segments of this: (i) The presence of both crypts *and* villi; (ii) goblet cells outnumbered by columnar cells.

(1) *Duodenum.*—In upper portion of this, glands of Brünner present. Easily distinguishable by fact that the main mass of the glands lies external to muscularis mucosæ, *i.e.*, on mesenteric side. Hence easily differentiated from crypts. Villi tend to be spatulate in shape.

(2) *Jejunum* (also lower part of duodenum).—No glands of Brünner. Progressive increase in numbers of goblet cells and in lymphoid tissue. Villi tend to be filiform. Jejunum grades imperceptibly into duodenum above and ileum below.

(3) *Ileum.*—Goblet cells plentiful. Maximum development of lymphoid tissue attained in shape of Peyer's patches.

LARGE INTESTINE.—Characteristic of all segments of this: (i) Absence of any villi; (ii) very great preponderance of goblet over columnar epithelium cells.

(1) *Appendix vermiformis.*—Muscular coats thick; lymphoid tissue highly developed in submucosa.

(2) *Cæcum and colon.*—Muscular coats thin, in man and monkey easily distinguished in transverse section by presence of *tæniæ coli*, three narrow band-like thickenings of longitudinal muscle layer.

(3) *Rectum.*—General structure as for colon. (i) Muscular wall thicker and devoid of *tæniæ*; (ii) mucosa thrown into the columns of Morgagni; (iii) in anal canal, stratified squamous epithelium in place of columnar.

LESSON XXXIV.

THE LIVER.

1. GOOD fixatives for liver are Susa and Zenker. Sections are cut from paraffin and should be very thin. They may be stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin or iron-hæmatoxylin. Sections stained in the latter may often also show bile-canaliculi between the cells. Sketch the general arrangement of the cells in a lobule under the low power; and under the high power make detailed drawings of some of the hepatic cells and also of a portal canal. If from the pig, the outlines of the lobules are observed to be well marked off by connective tissue.

Notice that the hepatic cells are in intimate contact with the blood-sinusoids. Some cells are occasionally found to contain red blood-corpuscles; all contain granules, many of them mitochondrial in nature. Notice within the sinus-like capillaries partly detached cells, the *stellate cells of Kupffer*. These, which are phagocytic, frequently contain erythrocytes in process of destruction.

2. Examine demonstration specimens in which the reticulum is stained by Foot's method. (See Appendix).

3. Glycogen.—To observe glycogen within the liver-cells, kill a rabbit or rat about six hours after a meal of carrot, and at once throw a thin piece of the liver into 96 per cent. alcohol. When hardened the piece may be embedded in paraffin in the usual way. Some of the sections so obtained are to be treated with a 1 per cent. solution of iodine in 2 per cent. potassium iodide for five minutes. They may be mounted in a nearly saturated solution of potassium acetate, the cover-glass being cemented with gold size and they can thus be kept for a time, but the stain will eventually fade.

Other sections may be stained with a solution of carmine in potassium carbonate; this stains the glycogen better and more permanently (Champy).

4. Iron.—Treat sections of formol-fixed liver with the following reagent:—2 per cent. solution of potassium ferrocyanide, 1 part; 1 per cent. hydrochloric acid, 3 parts. Leave therein for thirty minutes. Then stain in 1 per cent. aqueous neutral red for five minutes, pass through absolute alcohol into xylol, and mount in dammar. Some granules will be stained blue (Prussian blue reaction), indicating the presence of iron.

5. Blood-vessels.—Study with the low power a thick section to show the general arrangement of the injected blood-vessels, and with a high power a very thin section, which may be lightly stained with hæmatoxylin.

6. Bile-canaliculi.—Take a small piece of liver which has been several weeks in 2 per cent. bichromate of potassium solution and place it in 1 per cent. silver nitrate, changing this after half an hour. Leave the piece of liver in the silver solution overnight. It may then be transferred to alcohol, and after complete dehydration, embedded and cut in paraffin in the usual way and the sections mounted in dammar. In many parts of such sections the bile-canaliculi are stained.

The **liver** is a solid glandular organ, made up of the *hepatic lobules*. These are polyhedral cell-masses (figs. 454 and 459) about 1 mm. ($\frac{1}{25}$ inch) in diameter, separated from one another by connective tissue. In some animals,

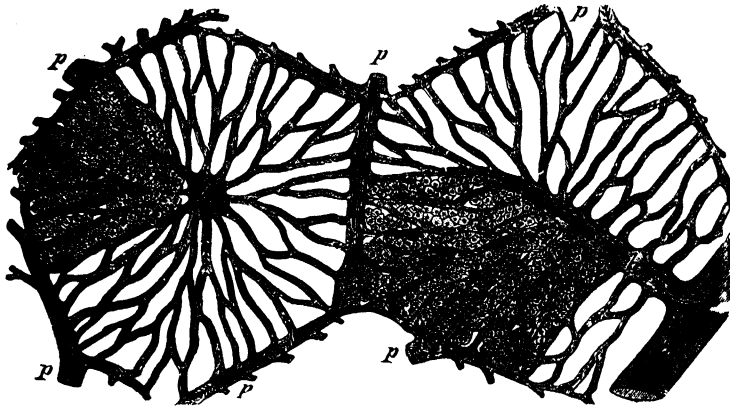


FIG. 454.—DIAGRAM OF TWO HEPATIC LOBULES.

The left-hand lobule is represented with the central or intralobular vein cut across; in the right-hand one the section takes the course of the vein. *p*, interlobular branches of the portal vein; *h*, intralobular branches of the hepatic veins; *s*, sublobular vein. The arrows indicate the direction of the course of the blood. The liver-cells are represented in a part only of each lobule.



FIG. 455.—SECTION OF LIVER OF FIG. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 30$.

The collagen septa demarcating the lobules are highly developed in this species. The contents of the portal sheath (or capsule of Glisson) include: *b.d.*, two branches of the bile duct; *h.a.*, two branches of the hepatic artery; *l*, distended lymphatics; *p.v.*, branch of the portal vein. Also, *c*, the central vein of an hepatic lobule and the collagen septa demarcating the latter.

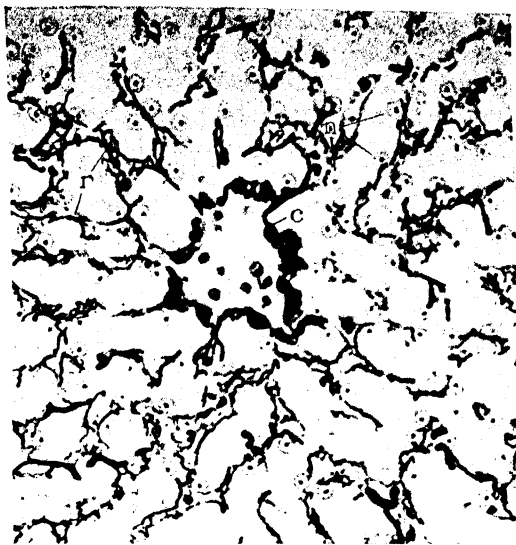


FIG. 456.—SILVER IMPREGNATION BY FOOT'S METHOD, SHOWING FINE FIBRES OF RETICULAR TISSUE. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 320$.

c, collagen fibres in wall of central vein of lobule; *n*, nuclei of the liver cells; *r*, reticular fibres.

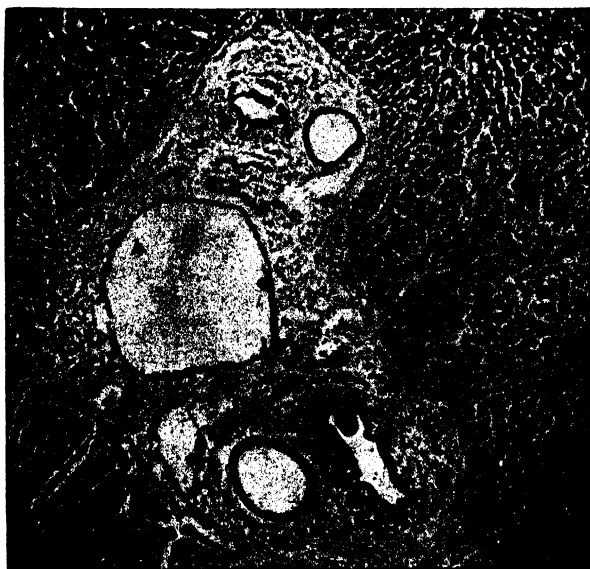


FIG. 457.—SECTION OF A PORTAL CANAL: DOG. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 50$. Photograph.

The large vessel is a branch of the portal vein; the irregular tubes are sections of branches of the hepatic duct; near each of these is a branch of the hepatic artery. All the vessels are enclosed by the connective tissue of the capsule of Glisson; in this tissue several lymph-vessels are seen as clear spaces. The whole is surrounded by liver-lobules.

e.g., the pig, this separation is complete, and each lobule is isolated, but in most animals, including man, it is incomplete. There is also a layer of connective tissue underneath the serous covering of the liver, forming an external capsule to the organ. Each lobule is penetrated by a fine network of reticular tissue which helps to support the columns of cells within the lobule (fig. 456).

The afferent blood-vessels of the liver, the portal vein and the hepatic artery, enter its under surface, where also the bile-duct passes away from the gland. The bulk of the blood supply of the liver is *via* the portal vein, *not* the hepatic artery. The latter in fact supplies the tissues of the portal sheaths rather than the hepatic cells. The branches of these three vessels accompany one another in their course through the organ, and are enclosed

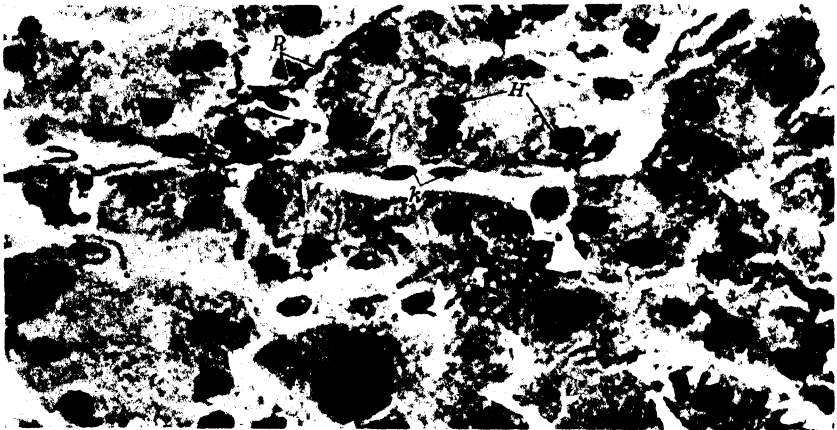


FIG. 458.—SECTION OF LIVER. (Photograph by E. H. Leach.) $\times 560$.

H, nuclei of hepatic cells—in one instance double; *K*, Kupfer cells projecting into a sinusoid; *R*, reticulum.

by a loose connective-tissue sheath, known as the *capsule of Glisson*, in which are lymph-vessels, the whole also being termed a *portal sheath* (figs. 455 and 457). The smaller branches of the vessels penetrate to the intervals between the hepatic lobules, and are known as the *interlobular vessels*. The blood leaves the liver at the back of the organ by the hepatic veins; the branches of these run through the gland unaccompanied by other vessels (except lymphatics) and can also be traced to the lobules, from each of which they receive a minute branch, the *central or intralobular vein*, which passes from the centre of the lobule, and opens directly into the *sublobular* branch of the hepatic vein.

Each hepatic lobule is a mass of cells pierced everywhere with a network of sinusoid blood-vessels, often called hepatic capillaries (figs. 457, 460). At the periphery of the lobule these sinusoids receive blood from the interlobular branches of the portal vein (fig. 454, *p*), and converging to the centre of the lobule unite to form the intralobular branch of the hepatic vein (*central*

vein of lobule). The interlobular branches of the hepatic arteries join the sinusoids a short distance from the periphery of the lobule. The blood in the sinusoids is often in direct contact with the liver-cells (the endothelium being partly deficient). Conspicuous cells occur at intervals on the walls of the sinuses, where they lie in contact with the liver-cells. These are the so-called *stellate cells of v. Kupffer*, which were, however, originally described by Browicz. They are highly phagocytic, like the phagocytic cells of the blood-sinuses of the spleen, and they ingest erythrocytes, which can be seen within them, often partly disintegrated. They also take in fine suspended particles, such as quartz or carbon particles, after their injection in the blood.

The Kupffer cells belong to the reticulo-endothelial system of Aschoff (see p. 57). They are generally regarded as the remains of the endothelium; they are liable to become detached from the walls of the sinusoids and carried away by the blood-stream. The Kupffer cells are in intimate relationship with the fine framework of reticular fibres, the latter lying between the Kupffer and the hepatic cells. The reticular fibres appear to grade imperceptibly into the collagen fibres of the portal sheaths and the capsule (fig. 456).

The hepatic cells are large, polyhedral cells each containing one or two vesicular nuclei, the nucleoli of which are very conspicuous. When the liver is injected with carmine-gelatine through the portal vein the sinusoids become filled with the injection mass (figs. 459, 460). In addition, however, spaces containing the carmine-gelatine may be seen in the hepatic cells themselves, as was first shown by Schafer in 1902 and confirmed later by Herring and Simpson. These spaces have received varying interpretations; by some they are regarded as genuine canaliculi within the cells: the fact that the injection can enter the cells is made possible by the apparent discontinuity of the vascular endothelium. Other authors regard the spaces as artefacts, produced, for instance, by the filling up of vacuoles with the injection mass. Recent opinion on the whole favours the latter view.

After a mixed meal many of the liver-cells contain fat, especially those at the periphery of the lobules. Unless special methods are used the fat is dissolved, leaving, however, characteristic sharply-contoured vacuoles. Masses of glycogen can also be seen within them (fig. 461) if the liver is treated by special methods. The finely granular appearance of the glycogen is probably an artefact due to precipitation from a pre-existing colloidal solution. Glycogen-formation tends to begin in the centre of the hepatic lobule while the secretion of bile commences at the periphery. Both are periodic processes and would appear to be antagonistic, in that when bile-formation is at its maximum the glycogen-content of the lobule is at its lowest and *vice versa* (Forsgren).

Turnbull has shown that, when a liver heavily infiltrated with glycogen is fixed in a fluid in which this compound is soluble, curious appearances result. The hepatic cells show intense cytoplasmic vesiculation while the nuclei may disappear. The condition in fact closely resembles marked parenchymatous degeneration; its true nature is, however, revealed by



FIG. 459.—FROM A SECTION OF RABBIT'S LIVER INJECTED FROM THE PORTAL VEIN, SHOWING INTRACELLULAR SPACES APPARENTLY COMMUNICATING WITH THE INTERCELLULAR BLOOD-SINUSOIDS. $\times 400$.



FIG. 460.—LIVER INJECTED WITH CARMINE-GELATINE. (Photograph by E. H. Leach.) $\times 100$.

c, central (intralobular) vein; the sinusoids can be seen radiating from this to the portal sheaths, *ps*.

the use of one of the methods for the detection of glycogen : the liver cells are then seen to be heavily loaded with this substance. The cells contain,

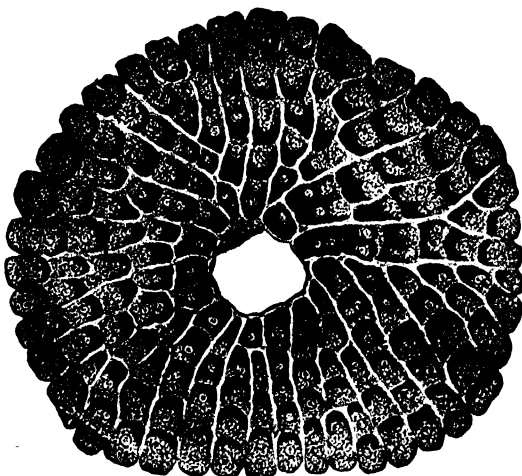


FIG. 461.—LIVER-CELLS CONTAINING GLYCOGEN. (Barfurth.)

besides granules of a mitochondrial nature which often take the form of short rods, pigment-granules which can be stained by potassium ferrocyanide and hydrochloric acid (presence of free iron). Part of the iron within the cells is in organic combination ; this can be set free by treatment for a short time with alcohol to which 10 per cent. hydrochloric acid has been added (A. B. Macallum).

Bile-ducts.—The smallest ducts commence between the liver-cells in the form of *intercellular bile-channels*, the so-called *bile-canaliculi*, which lie between the cells, and receive the contents of the secretion-vacuoles (see below). The bile-canaliculi form a network, the meshes of which correspond in size to the cells (fig. 462) ; the network is incomplete, some of the channels ending blindly. At the periphery of the lobule the intercellular bile-canaliculi pass into the smallest interlobular bile-ducts (fig. 463). The bile-canaliculi are always bounded by liver-cells, never placed between a cell and a blood-sinus.

A Golgi apparatus has been described

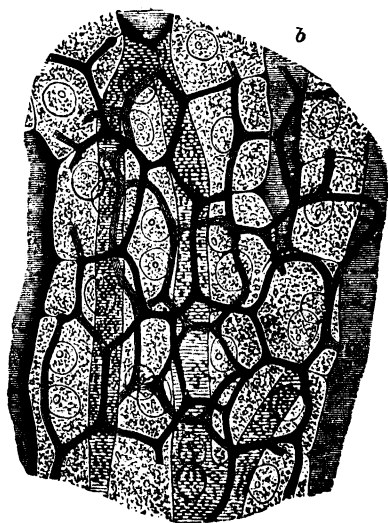


FIG. 462.—SECTION OF RABBIT'S LIVER WITH THE INTERCELLULAR NETWORK OF BILE - CANALICULI INJECTED. (Herring.) Highly magnified.

Two or three layers of cells are represented ;
b, blood-sinusoids.

(Makarov) as lying along the intercellular bile-canaliculi ; in some animals the bile pigment granules are apparently found within it.

The liver-cells may show during secretory activity very fine short canals which communicate with the network of bile-canaliculi ; these fine canals, which generally commence within the cell by dilatations (secretion-vacuoles) and probably are not permanent structures.

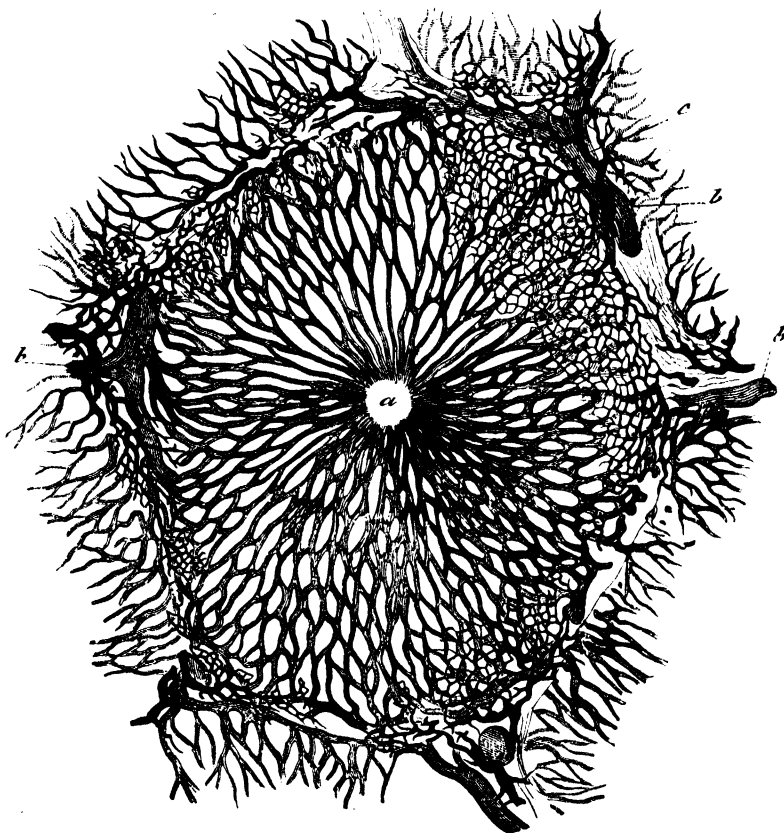


FIG. 463.—LOBULE OF RABBIT'S LIVER: VESSELS AND BILE-DUCTS INJECTED. (Cadiat.)

a, central vein connected by the network of sinusoids with *b, b*, peripheral or interlobular veins ; *c*, interlobular bile-duct commencing in a network of intercellular bile-canaliculi within the lobule. The injection of the bile-canaliculi has only penetrated a short distance into the lobule.

The actual bile-ducts, which carry bile away from the lobules, are lined by columnar epithelium. This resembles that of the small intestine. Outside this epithelium is a basement-membrane, and in the larger ducts some fibrous and plain muscular tissue. Many of the large ducts are beset with blind diverticula ; the main duct has small acinous glands in its wall. The ducts which lie between (*i.e.*, at the periphery of) the lobules and receive the bile-canaliculi from them are lined by cubical or flattened cells.

The liver-cells, the cells of the bile-ducts and those of the gall-bladder are all liable to contain fat droplets during absorption of a meal containing fat; no doubt the fat in the cells has been formed by re-synthesis of absorbed fatty acids and glycerol, as in the case of the intestinal epithelium.

As Herring and Simpson first showed, there are no lymphatics actually within the lobules; there is, in fact, no space for them between the liver-cells and the blood in the sinusoids. There are, however, numerous lymph-vessels accompanying the interlobular branches of the portal vein (fig. 455),

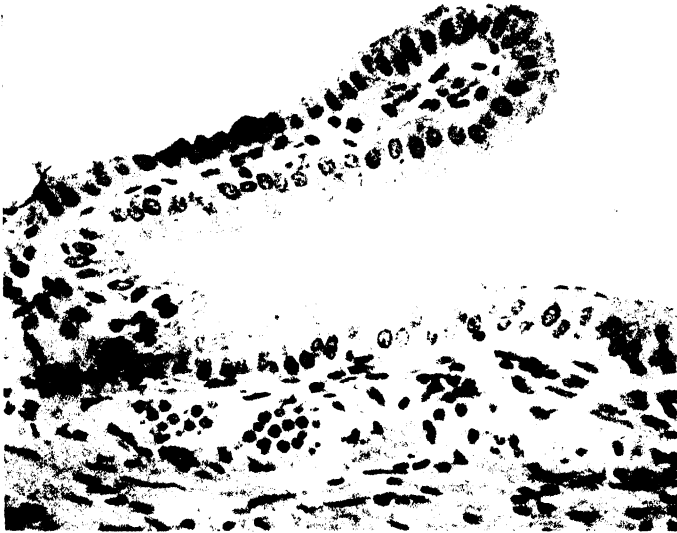


FIG. 464.—SECTION OF THE WALL OF THE GALL-BLADDER: MAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 355. Photograph. Preparation by C. F. W. Illingworth.

and others, less numerous, accompanying the tributaries of the hepatic veins. But no direct communication through the lobules exists between the two sets of lymphatics, although they communicate freely both at the periphery of the lobules and near their exit from the liver. Most of the liver-lymph is drained away by the lymphatics accompanying the portal vein.

The nerves of the liver reach the organ through the splanchnics. They are distributed both to the vessels and liver-cells.

The development of the liver has already been mentioned in connexion with the formation of its sinusoids (p. 228).

THE GALL-BLADDER.

The **gall-bladder** in its general structure is similar to the larger bile-ducts. It is lined by columnar epithelium rather like that of the small intestine; outside that its wall is formed of fibrous, muscular and elastic

tissue. The mucous membrane is thrown into permanent reticulating folds (fig. 464), which become larger and more numerous near the neck of the gall-bladder. The epithelium is capable of absorbing water, thereby concentrating the bile.

Clearly defined globules of mucus are always present in the epithelial cells of the human gall-bladder. These cells can thus both extrude mucus *and* imbibe water, as shown by H. E. Harding. It is probable, moreover, that the so-called striated border of the cells is really composed of fine filaments of mucus in process of extrusion, as is evidenced by its reaction to specific stains for mucus. The intra-cellular mucus would seem to be formed in the region of the Golgi apparatus (Harding).

LESSON XXXV.

THE PANCREAS.

1. EXAMINE sections of pancreas fixed (preferably) in Susa or in 5 per cent. formol. The sections may be stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin or with Mann's methyl-blue-eosin. Notice the islets of Langerhans between the alveoli; they are generally most numerous near the splenic end of the pancreas.

Make sketches under both low and high power.

2. If the pancreas is taken from a rat which has been fed with the addition of ox-thyroid to its ordinary food during seven days, the cells of the alveoli exhibit numerous mitoses. These are entirely absent in the pancreas of the normal animal.

3. Tease a small piece of fresh pancreas in salt solution or dilute glycerine after treatment with 1 per cent. osmic acid. Notice the zymogen granules in the alveolar cells, chiefly accumulated in the half of the cell which is nearest the lumen of the alveolus, leaving the outer zone of the cell clear.

Sketch a small portion of an alveolus under a high power.

The **pancreas** is a racemose gland, resembling the serous salivary glands so far as its general structure is concerned, but differing from them in the fact that the alveoli are longer and more tubular in character. Moreover, the connective tissue of the gland is looser. The feature, however, which most readily makes it possible to distinguish between the salivary glands and the pancreas is the presence in the latter of special cell-masses now to be described.

1. **Islets of Langerhans** (figs. 465, 466).—These appear in sections stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin as rounded masses of small cells, the cytoplasm of which is relatively unstained. This is in sharp contrast with the relatively deeply stained serous alveoli. Abundant and somewhat large capillaries penetrate between the cells which furthermore are never in relation with the pancreatic ducts. The islet cells are responsible for the production of the hormone *Insulin*. There is evidence that pathological changes in the islets are present in diabetes though much of the relationship between dysfunction and histo-pathological changes in the pancreas is still obscure.

The islets contain three kinds of cell, distinguishable from one another by the chemical nature and staining properties of their granules after the application of special methods. The granules of the one kind are insoluble in alcohol and are oxyphil: the cells containing them are termed A cells. Those of the other kind are soluble in 96 per cent. alcohol (in this respect resembling *insulin*) and are basophil: the cells containing them are termed B cells. Some of the islet-cells, devoid of granules, are known as the indifferent, or C, cells, and are regarded by many investigators as being the progenitors of both A and B cells. The islet-cells contain mitochondria, and each has a well-marked reticular Golgi apparatus. The islets are well shown in the fresh gland by R. Bensley's method of staining *in vivo* with neutral

red or Janus green which colour them selectively. In the human pancreas there are as many as from ten to twenty islets in each milligramme, which would give

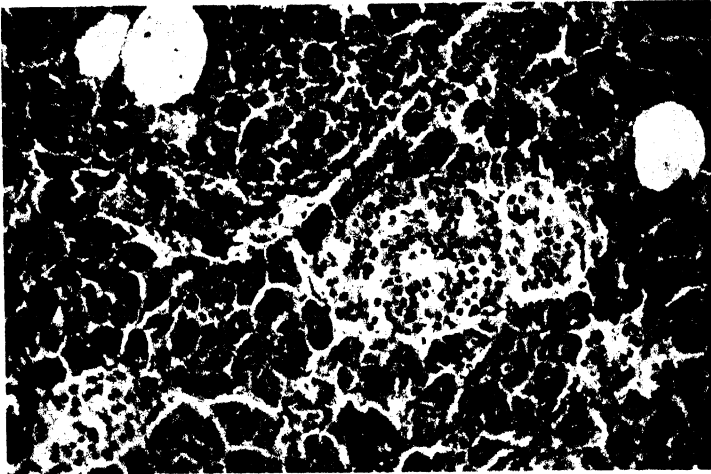


FIG. 465.—PANCREAS: HUMAN. (H. M. Carleton.)

Besides the alveoli, sections of three islets are seen. The clear spaces are fat cells.

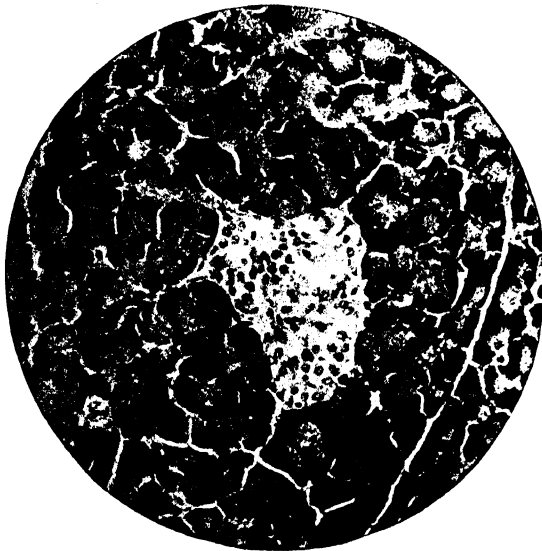


FIG. 466.—AN ISLET OF LANGERHANS IN PANCREAS OF DOG. (Kojima.) $\times 300$.

from a million to more than a million and a half in the whole pancreas (Clark). The islet-tissue is thus seen to constitute a very significant part of the organ.

In teleostean fishes the islet-tissue forms a separate organ, but attached to the rest of the pancreas.

2. **Serous alveoli** (figs. 467 and 468).—The cells which line these are columnar or polyhedral in shape. When examined in the fresh condition, or in sections fixed and stained by appropriate methods, their cytoplasm is seen to be filled in the inner two-thirds with granules, the outer



FIG. 467.—ALVEOLI OF DOG'S PANCREAS, CELLS LOADED: OSMIC PREPARATION. (Babkin, Rubasckin, and Ssawitsch.)

third being clear; it may appear striated. After a period of activity the clear part of the cell becomes larger, and the granular part smaller (fig. 468). In hamatoxylin-stained sections the outer part is coloured more deeply than the inner (fig. 466). This is due to the concentration in this



FIG. 468.—ALVEOLI OF DOG'S PANCREAS AFTER A PERIOD OF ACTIVITY PRODUCED BY APPLICATION OF ACID TO MUCOUS MEMBRANE OF DUODENUM. (Babkin, Rubasckin, and Ssawitsch.)

part of a mass of thread-like mitochondria. In specially fixed and stained specimens the mitochondria (fig. 12, p. 9) are discrete, but with ordinary methods only the darkly staining mass, referred to above, can be seen. In sections stained by Mallory's method the granules of the inner zone are coloured intensely red, and stand out black in photographs. The granules

are always most abundant in the alveoli immediately surrounding the islets (Kojima) and are generally regarded as being the precursor of the pancreatic secretion.

Some interesting observations have been made by Covell on the secretory processes in living acini. An ingenious method enabled the pancreas of the mouse to be exteriorised; it was then possible to examine it at high magnifications. Zymogen granules were seen to be extruded from the cell into the lumen by a curious pinching off of the free pole of the cell. Fluid vacuoles were also similarly extruded, these latter seeming to originate by liquefaction of the zymogen granules. The rate of secretion was accelerated by the injection of pilocarpin and secretin.

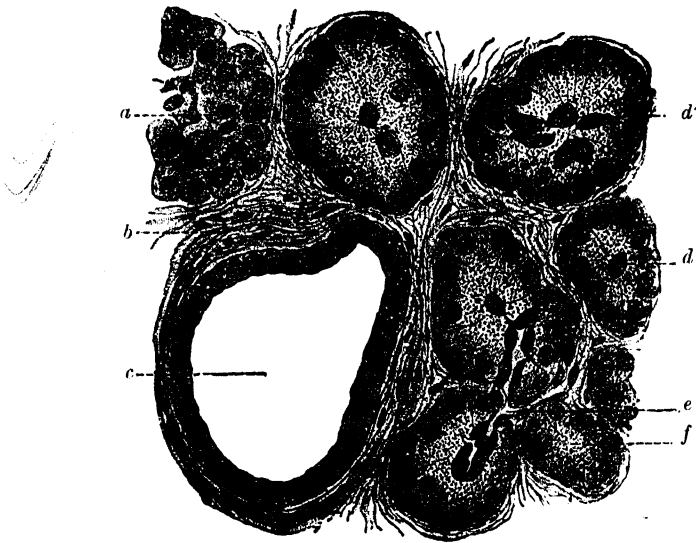


FIG. 469.—SECTION OF HUMAN PANCREAS. (Böhm and v. Davidoff.) $\times 450$.

a, part of an islet of Langerhans; *b*, connective tissue; *c*, larger duct; *d*, lumen of alveolus; *d'*, alveolus with centro-acinar cells; *e*, small duct passing into alveoli; *f*, inner granular zone of alveolus.

Under normal circumstances the pancreas-cells do not exhibit karyokinesis or show any evidence of multiplication. But in rats fed with thyroid gland in addition to their ordinary food numerous mitoses can be seen throughout the gland, indicating rapid cell-division (Kojima). The islet-cells never show mitoses.

In the centre of each acinus there may generally be seen a few spindle-shaped cells (*centro-acinar cells*); they appear to be continued from the cells which line the smallest ducts (fig. 469, *e*). Sometimes they are more conspicuous, and fill the parts of the alveoli which are nearest to the duct; in these cases the mass of cells which they form is liable to be mistaken for a Langerhans' islet. Diverticula from the lumen of the alveolus penetrate between the alveolar cells (fig. 470) as in serous glands generally. The islets may remain in contact with the ducts, from which they were originally developed as solid strands of epithelium cells (fig. 471).

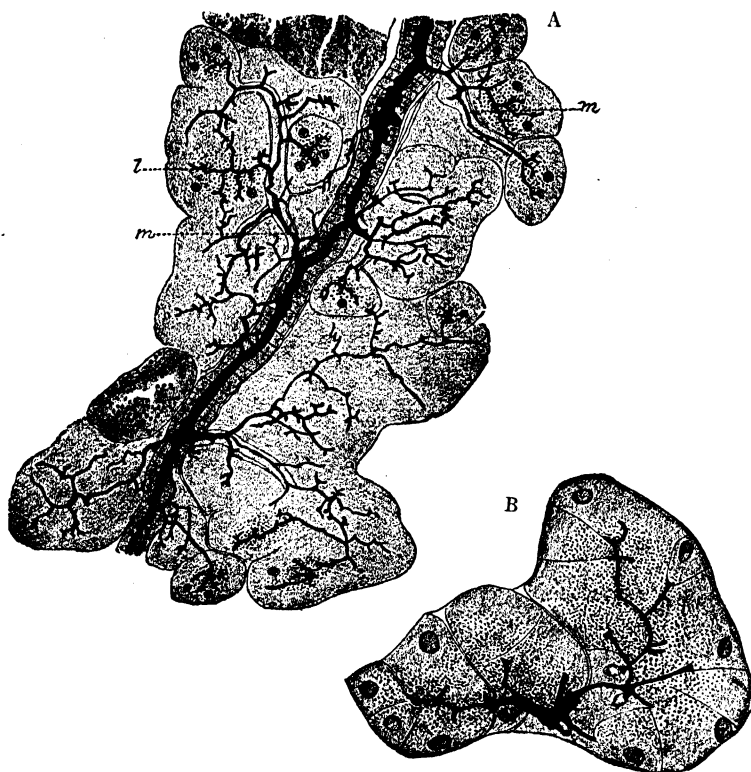


FIG. 470.—A DUCT OF THE PANCREAS WITH LATERAL DIVERTICULA INTO THE ALVEOLI : GOLGI METHOD. (E. Müller.)

In A the duct is shown cut longitudinally and giving off ductules, *m, m*, to the alveoli, where they extend between the cells, *l*. In B the details of their termination are shown more highly magnified. Portions of two islets are seen in A.



FIG. 471.—ISLETS FROM PANCREAS OF GUINEA-PIG STILL CONNECTED WITH PANCREATIC DUCTS BY BRANCHED CELL-CORDS. (R. Bensley.) $\times 77$.

Two or three of the islets are sessile on the ducts.

Like all secreting glands the pancreas is very vascular. Each alveolus has a network of capillaries closely surrounding it, but always outside its

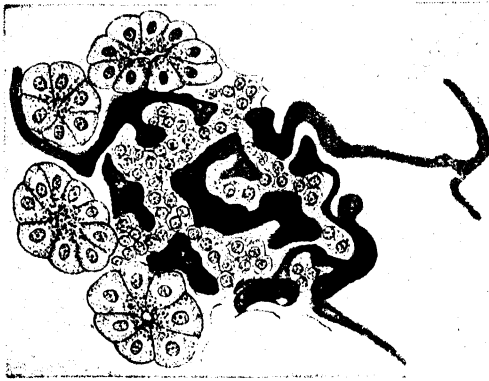


FIG. 472.—INJECTION OF BLOOD-VESSELS OF AN ISLET OF THE PANCREAS.
(Kühne and Lea.)

basement-membrane. The capillaries of the islets are large and irregular and resemble sinusoids (fig. 472).

The pancreas has many nerves, with numerous small ganglia distributed upon their course. Some nerve-fibres end by ramifying amongst the cells

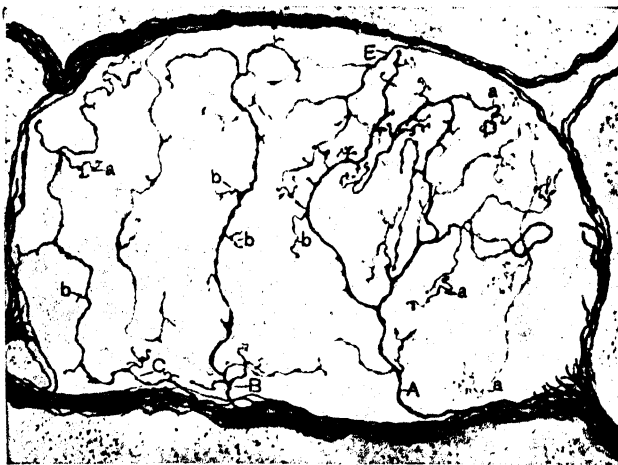


FIG. 473.—NERVES DISTRIBUTED TO AN ISLET OF LANGERHANS OF THE MOUSE. Golgi preparation. (F. de Castro.)

of the alveoli, as in the salivary glands; many are distributed to the islets (fig. 473). In addition numerous nerve-fibres pass to the blood-vessels. In the cat, which has Pacinian bodies in its mesentery, these terminal organs are also found abundantly in the substance of the pancreas, but this is a

mere accident, resulting from the fact that the pancreas in this animal—as in many others—has a thin extension between the layers of the mesentery, and in the cat this membrane always contains Pacinian corpuscles.

DEVELOPMENT.

The pancreas is formed from an outgrowth (at first solid, afterwards becoming hollow) of the endoderm of the small intestine, much in the same way that the salivary glands are developed from the ectoderm of the mouth. The islets of Langerhans make their appearance as buds from the developing ducts, but they remain solid and do not acquire a lumen like the alveoli; their connexion with the ducts is not always lost, though later they become isolated in the midst of the glandular substance of the organ.

LESSON XXXVI.

THE KIDNEY, URETER, AND BLADDER.

1. EXAMINE sections passing through the whole kidney, fixed in Susa, of a small mammal, such as a mouse, rat or guinea-pig. These sections show the general arrangement of the organ and the disposition of the tubules and Malpighian corpuscles.

2. Thin sections of the human or monkey kidney, if it can be obtained perfectly normal, or, failing this, of the kidney of the dog or cat, may next be studied. Some of the sections should be cut parallel with the rays of the medulla; others across their direction. The characters of the epithelium of the several parts of the uriniferous tubules and the structure of the glomeruli are to be made out in these sections.

3. Separate portions of the uriniferous tubules may be studied in teased preparations from a kidney which has been macerated in strong hydrochloric acid for a few hours. This renders it possible to unravel the tubules for some distance.

4. Thick sections of a kidney in which the blood-vessels have been injected and the nuclei stained with hæmatoxylin. Examine these with a low power of the microscope. Follow the course of the arteries of the cortex sending their branches to the glomeruli, and observe the pencils of capillaries which run from the deeper glomeruli between the straight uriniferous tubules of the boundary zone. Notice the efferent vessels from the rest of the glomeruli breaking up into the network of capillaries distributed to the convoluted tubules.

5. Examine sections across the lower part of the ureter and another across the upper part near the pelvis of the kidney fixed in Susa.

6. Examine section of the urinary bladder vertical to the surface. The organ should first be moderately distended by the Susa, then fixed by immersion in more of the same fluid.

THE KIDNEY.

The kidney is a compound tubular gland. To the naked eye it appears formed of two portions—a *cortical* and a *medullary*. Between these there is a somewhat undefined zone known as the *boundary zone*, characterised by the large number of blood-vessels it contains. In man the medulla is subdivided into about twelve conical portions, the *pyramids of Malpighi*, the base of each pyramid being in contact with cortical substance, while the apex projects in the form of a *papilla* into the dilated commencement of the ureter, the *pelvis of the kidney*. In many animals (e.g., dog, cat, rabbit, monkey) the *whole* kidney is formed of only a single pyramid (fig. 475); in others the pyramids are even more numerous than in man. In some animals the pyramids form distinct portions of kidney substance united by connective tissue and blood-vessels. Both cortex and medulla are composed entirely of tubules—the *uriniferous tubules*—which have a straight direction in the

medulla and a contorted arrangement in the cortex, but groups of straight tubules also pass from the medulla through the thickness of the cortex as the so-called *medullary rays* (fig. 474). Between the latter are deep cortical downgrowths, the *columns of Bertini*.

The uriniferous tubules begin in the cortical part of the organ in dilatations, each enclosing a tuft or glomerulus of convoluted capillary blood-vessels known as a *corpuscle of Malpighi*, the dilated commencement of the tubule being known as the *capsule* (fig. 477). The capsule is lined by flattened

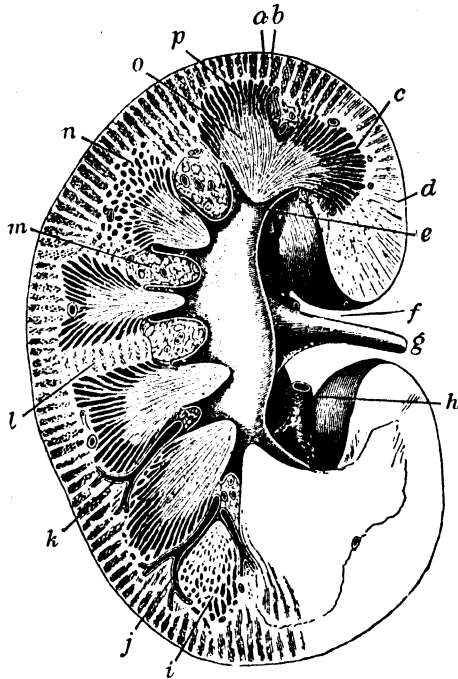


FIG. 474.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF HUMAN KIDNEY THROUGH HILUS.

(From Bailey's *Histology*, after Merkel-Henle.)

a, cortical pyramid; *b*, medullary ray; *c*, medulla; *d*, cortex; *e*, renal calyx; *f*, hilus; *g*, ureter; *h*, renal artery; *i*, tubules of medulla (obliquely cut); *j* and *k*, arches of renal artery; *l*, columns of Bertini; *m*, connective tissue and fat surrounding renal vessels; *n*, medulla cut obliquely; *o*, papilla; *p*, medullary pyramid.

epithelium; outside the epithelium its wall is formed by a basement membrane continuous with that of the tubules. The *glomerulus* is lobulated (fig. 477), the lobules being united by the branches of the afferent and efferent vessels; it is covered by a flattened epithelium reflected from that lining the capsule (fig. 477); this epithelium dips in between the lobules and comes in close contact with the capillaries. The glomeruli near the medulla are larger than the rest and have more lobules. The capillary-wall in all the glomeruli is a syncytium, showing no cell-outlines in silver preparations.

The *tubule* leaves the capsule by a *neck* (fig. 476) which is, however,

rarely narrower than the rest of the tubule in mammals. In some animals (e.g., frog) the neck is long, and has ciliated epithelium. The tubule is at first convoluted and is termed the *first or proximal convoluted tubule*.¹ It then becomes nearly straight or slightly spiral only (*spiral tubule*) and, rapidly narrowing, passes down into the medulla towards the dilated commencement



FIG. 475.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF HILUS OF UNI-PYRAMIDAL KIDNEY OF CAT. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 18$.

p, pelvis; p.g., pyramid; r.a., the two main branches of the renal artery; r.v., ditto, of the renal vein; both lying in the fatty tissue of the hilus.

of the ureter as the *descending limb of the looped tubule of Henle*. It does not at once, however, open directly into the pelvis of the kidney, but before reaching the end of the papilla it turns round in the form of a loop, the *loop*

¹ Nearly all authors speak of this first convoluted tubule as the 'proximal' one, and the second as 'distal.' This is terminologically incorrect since the blind extremity of a uriniferous tubule corresponds with that of a finger of a glove and is therefore the *distal* end. Nevertheless the practice of calling the *first* convoluted tubule *proximal*, and the *second distal* is almost universal and hence has been adopted in the present edition. (H. M. C.)

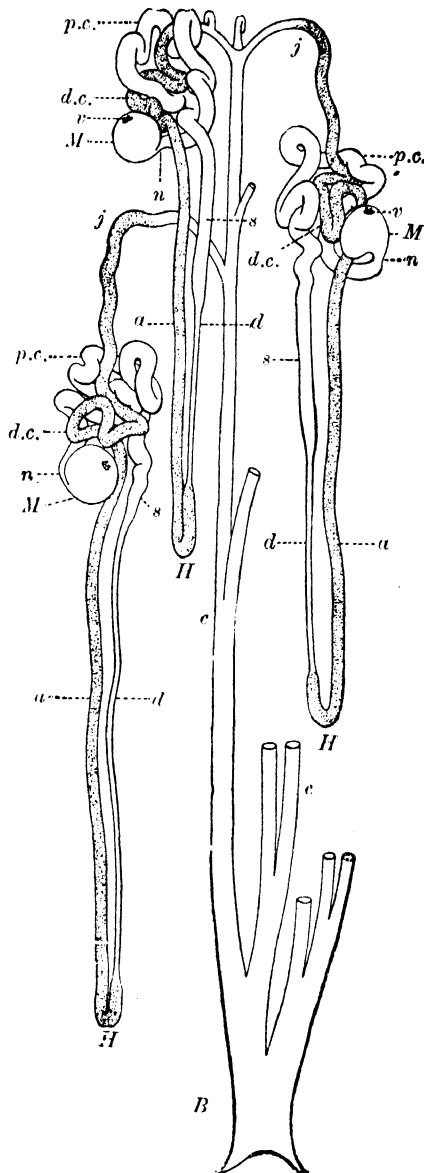


FIG. 476.—PLAN OF THE ARRANGEMENT OF THE URINIFEROUS TUBULES. (Huber.)

M, Malpighian corpuscles; *v*, point of entrance of vessels of glomerulus; *n*, neck; *p.c.*, proximal convoluted tubule, which arises from the Malpighian corpuscle; *s*, spiral tubule into which it is continued; *d*, narrow descending limb of loop of Henle; *H*, loop of Henle (this is sometimes formed by the narrow part of the looped tubule, but is here represented as formed by the wider part); *a*, wider ascending limb of loop of Henle; this passes back to the neighbourhood of the same Malpighian corpuscle, often becoming irregular and zigzag at its upper end. Here it becomes continuous with the distal convoluted tubule, *d.c.*, which eventually passes into the junctional tubule, *j*, by which it is connected with a collecting tubule, *c*. *B*, duct of Bellini, receiving a number of collecting tubules and opening at a papilla. The number of divisions of the collecting tubes is far greater than represented in the diagram.

of Henle; it then passes upwards again towards the cortex, parallel with its former course, and larger than before, forming the *ascending limb of the looped tubule of Henle*. Arrived at the cortex it approaches close to the capsule from which the tubule took origin, but at a point opposite to the origin, viz., near the afferent and efferent vessels of the glomerulus. It then becomes larger and irregularly zigzag (*zigzag* or *irregular tubule*), and again somewhat convoluted to form the *second* or *distal convoluted tubule*. Eventually it straightens out and narrowing into a small vessel, the *junctional tubule*, joins

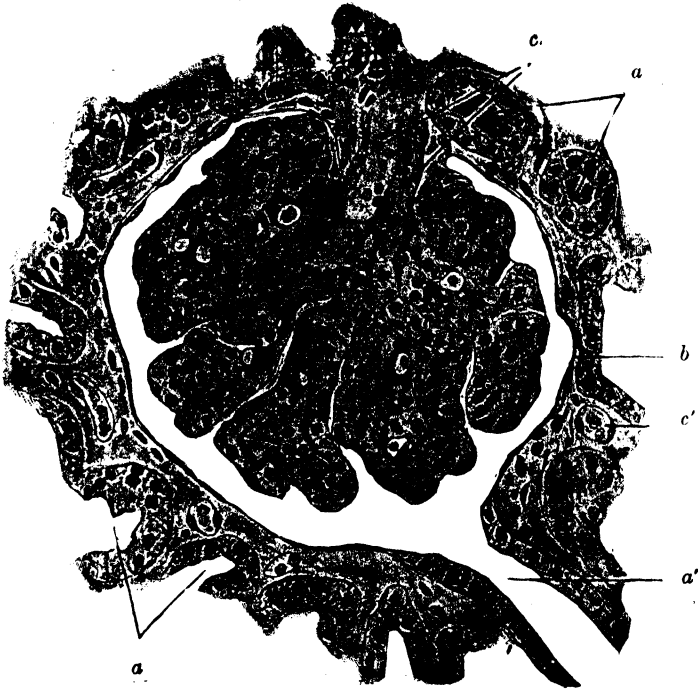


FIG. 477.—A MALPIGHIAN CORPUSCLE FROM THE KIDNEY OF THE MONKEY.
(Szymonowicz.) $\times 350$.

a, *a*, sections of convoluted tubules; *a'*, commencement of convoluted tube from capsule; *b*, capsule; *c*, afferent and efferent vessels of glomerulus; *c'*, capillary vessel outside corpuscle.

a *straight* or *collecting tubule*. The last-named unites with others to form larger collecting tubes which pass through the medullary substance of the kidney to open at the papilla as the *ducts of Bellini* (fig. 476). It is roughly computed that each duct of Bellini collects the secretion of about 19,000 glomeruli. Judging from the number of ducts of Bellini this would give about $4\frac{1}{2}$ million glomeruli in the human kidney (Traut).

The tubules are throughout bounded by a basement membrane, which is lined by epithelium; the characters of the epithelium-cells vary in the different parts of a tubule. In the *capsule* (figs. 477 and 480), as already

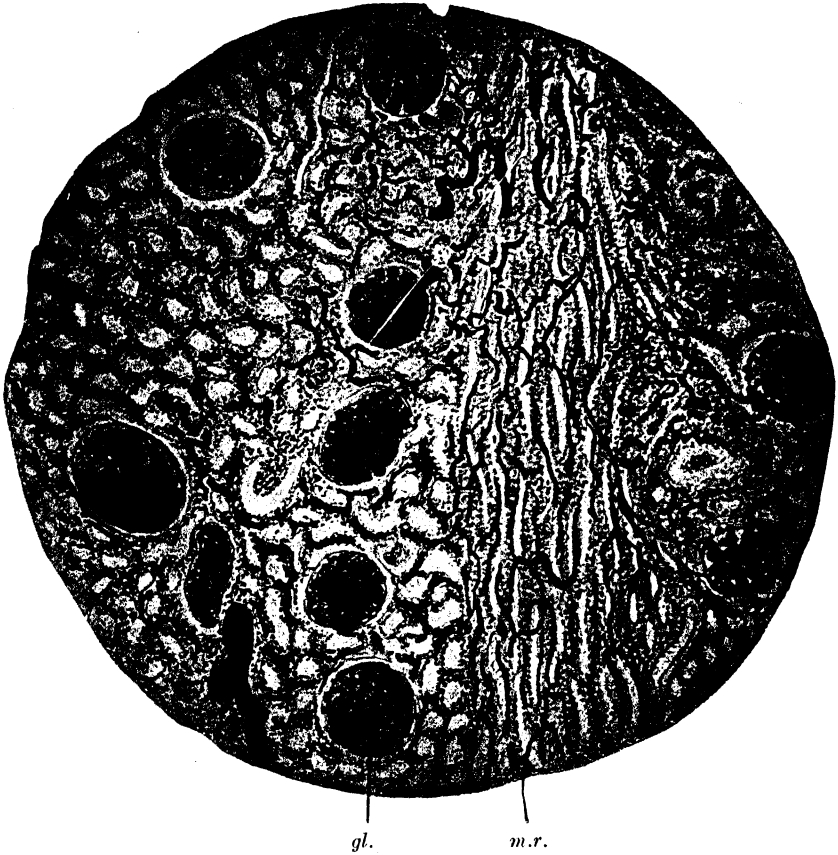


FIG. 478.—PART OF A SECTION THROUGH THE CORTEX OF A HUMAN KIDNEY, THE BLOOD-VESSELS OF WHICH HAVE BEEN INJECTED. (Dissec.)

gl., a glomerulus; *m.r.*, section of a medullary ray.

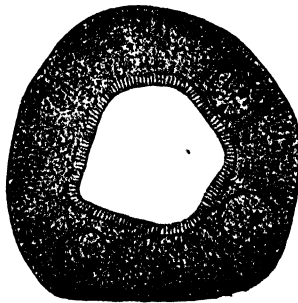


FIG. 479.—SECTION OF A CONVOLUTED TUBULE OF THE RABBIT'S KIDNEY, SHOWING THE STRIATED ARRANGEMENT OF THE MITOCHONDRIA IN THE EPITHELIUM. (Szymonowicz.)

noted, the epithelium is flattened and is reflected over the glomerulus. In some animals (*e.g.*, mouse) the thicker epithelium of the convoluted tube is prolonged a little way into the capsule. In the *first (proximal) convoluted* and *spiral tubules* the epithelium is thick, and the cells contain abundant mitochondria; these have a tendency to be arranged in longitudinal rows as in the cells of the salivary ducts (rod-like appearance, fig. 479).



FIG. 480.—HIGH POWER VIEW OF CORTEX OF KIDNEY OF CAT.
(H. M. Carleton.) $\times 420$.

a, ascending (or distal) loop of Henle, its cells cubical and granular; *c*, capsule epithelium; *d*, descending (or proximal) part of loop of Henle with clear and relatively flattened cells as compared with the ascending loop; *g.e.*, glomerular epithelium; *g.s.*, sub-capsular space.

Granular mitochondria are also present. The cells often exhibit a brush of cilium-like processes projecting into the lumen, but these are not vibratile. In the narrow *descending limb of the looped tubules*, and sometimes in the *loop* itself, the cells are clear and flattened (fig. 480); mitochondria are absent or rare; the lumen is relatively large; but usually in the *loop* and always in the *ascending limb* the cells are thicker and more deeply staining; they again acquire rod-shaped or granular mitochondria. The arrangement of the

mitochondria in lines perpendicular to the basement-membrane is still more marked in the *zigzag tubules*, and a similar structure is present also in the second or distal *convoluted tubules* into which these pass. On the other hand, the *junctional tubule* has a larger lumen and in it the striated epithelium gives place to clear flattened cells. The *collecting tubes* have also a very distinct lumen and are lined by clear cubical or columnar epithelium-cells (fig. 483), in which mitochondria are scanty or absent.

TABLE OF SEGMENTS OF URINARY TUBULE AND DISTINGUISHING FEATURES OF EPITHELIUM.

PORTION OF TUBULE.	NATURE OF EPITHELIUM.	POSITION OF TUBULE.
Capsule	Flattened, reflected over glomerulus, where its cells are said to form a syncytium	Labyrinth of cortex. ¹
First or proximal convoluted tubule	Cubical, granular, with appearance of fibrillation ('rodged'), the cells interlocking	Labyrinth of cortex.
Spiral tubule	Like the last	Medullary ray of cortex.
Descending limb of looped tubule	Clear flattened cells	Boundary zone and partly papillary zone of medulla.
Loop of Henle	Like the last (or may be like the ascending limb)	Papillary zone of medulla.
Ascending limb of looped tubule	Cubical, granular; the cells sometimes imbricated	Medulla, and medullary ray of cortex.
Zigzag tubule	Cells strongly 'rodged'; varying height, lumen small	Labyrinth of cortex.
Second or distal convoluted tubule	Similar to proximal convoluted tubule, but cells are longer, with larger nuclei, and are more refractive	Labyrinth of cortex.
Junctional tubule . .	Clear flattened and cubical cells .	Labyrinth, passing to medullary ray.
Straight or collecting tubule	Clear cubical and columnar cells .	Medullary ray and medulla.
Duct of Bellini	Clear columnar cells becoming cubical near the mouth	Opens at apex of papilla.

Many attempts have been made to correlate cytological and histo-chemical changes in the renal tubule with the functions ascribed to its different segments. That the lumen of the convoluted tubule increases in diameter during urinary secretion is well known. Changes in the mitochondria and Golgi bodies have been described, but it is difficult to assess their significance in terms of function. The histo-chemical localisation of substances—and particularly crystalloids—offers grave sources of error as pointed out by Lison. An instance of this is the localisation of urea within the cell. This substance is highly diffusible and hence tends to diffuse out of the cell before the relatively inert and heavy molecule of the detecting substance (xanthidrol) has had time to penetrate and form the precipitate of dioxanthylurea.

¹ The part of the cortex between and surrounding the medullary rays is so named.

Furthermore, the reaction is slow ; hence the odds are all against precise localisation of the urea. Such methods, however, for the localisation of crystalloids are obviously of value in determining the *gross* distribution of such substances. For further details Lison's excellent book¹ may be consulted.

The renal artery divides into branches on entering the organ ; these branches pass towards the cortex, forming arched vessels between the cortex

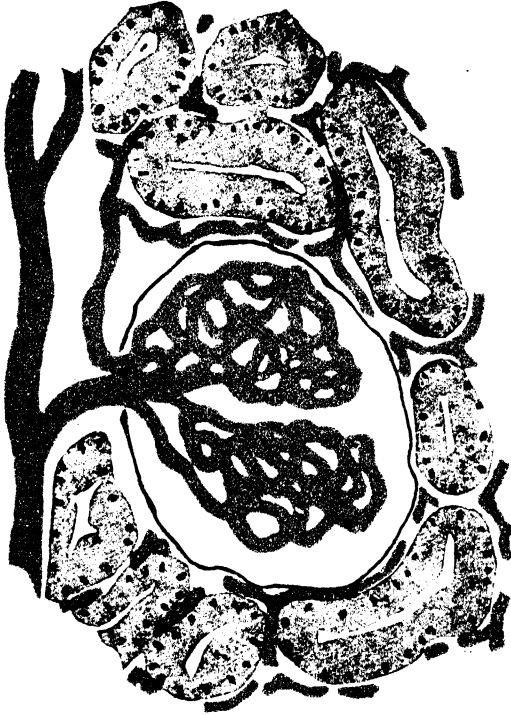


FIG. 481.—FROM AN INJECTED KIDNEY. (Prenant and Bouin.)

Cortical arteriole on the left giving off an afferent vessel to the glomerulus. From this a (smaller) efferent vessel comes off and joins the capillaries surrounding the tubules.

and the medulla. The arteries contain much elastic tissue in their inner and outer coats (fig. 254). In the former is a well-marked fenestrated membrane (fig. 258). The corresponding branches of the renal vein are more distinctly arched. From the arterial arches there pass through the cortex the *cortical* or *interlobular arteries*, which give off at intervals (in some animals from one side only) small arterioles known as the *afferent vessels of the glomeruli*, each of which enters the dilated commencement of a uriniferous tubule, within which its capillaries form a glomerulus (fig. 481). From the

¹ Lison, *Histochimie Animale* (Paris, 1936).

glomerulus a somewhat smaller *efferent vessel* passes out, and this at once again breaks up into capillaries, which are distributed amongst the tubules of the cortex. The blood is collected by veins which run parallel with the cortical arteries but not in juxtaposition with them. These veins join the venous arches between the cortex and medulla. They also receive blood

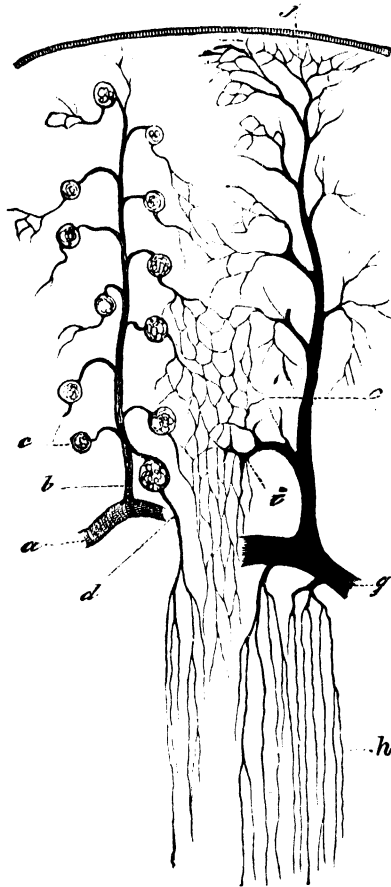


FIG. 482.—DIAGRAM OF BLOOD SUPPLY OF KIDNEY. (Modified from Cadiat.)

a, arterial arch; *b*, cortical artery; *c*, glomeruli, with afferent vessels entering them from the cortical artery and efferent vessels leaving them to break up into the capillary network (*e*), around the tubules; *d*, efferent vessel of one of the glomeruli near the medulla, furnishing capillaries to the medullary tubules; *g*, venous arch; *h*, venous capillaries of medulla; *i*, cortical vein; *j*, vena stellata.

from certain other veins which arise by radicles having a somewhat stellate arrangement near the capsule (*venæ stellulæ*).

The medulla derives its blood-supply from the efferent vessels of the glomeruli which are near the medulla (fig. 482). It is doubtful if any vessels come off directly from the arterial arches to supply the medulla, although the existence of such vessels was formerly assumed. But Morrison reports

that in forty-two cases in man which he examined he was unable to find any such, nor was he more successful in other mammals. This observation,

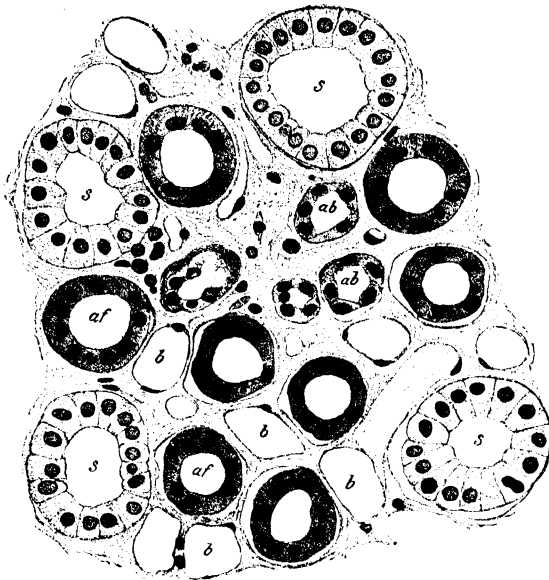


FIG. 483.—SECTION ACROSS THE MIDDLE OF A PYRAMID OF MALPIGHI: HUMAN. (Kölliker.) $\times 325$.

ab, narrow descending tubes of Henle; *af*, wider ascending tubes of Henle; *b*, capillaries; *s*, collecting tubes.

which has been confirmed by Moore, necessarily implies that the circulation in the kidney is wholly glomerular, as indeed Bowman supposed to be the case. The vessels supply a capillary network with elongated meshes which



FIG. 484.—NERVE-FIBRILS ENDING OVER CAPILLARY BLOOD-VESSELS AND AMONGST THE EPITHELIUM-CELLS OF A CONVOLUTED TUBE OF THE FROG'S KIDNEY. (Smirnow.)

pervades the medulla, and which terminates in a plexus of somewhat larger venous capillaries in the papilla. From these capillaries the venules of the medulla collect the blood, and pass, accompanying the straight arterioles, into the venous arches between the cortex and medulla. The groups of

small arteries and veins (*vasa recta*) in the part of the medulla nearest to the cortex alternate with groups of the uriniferous tubules; this arrangement confers a striated aspect, blood-red in the fresh kidney, upon that part of the medulla, the *boundary zone*.

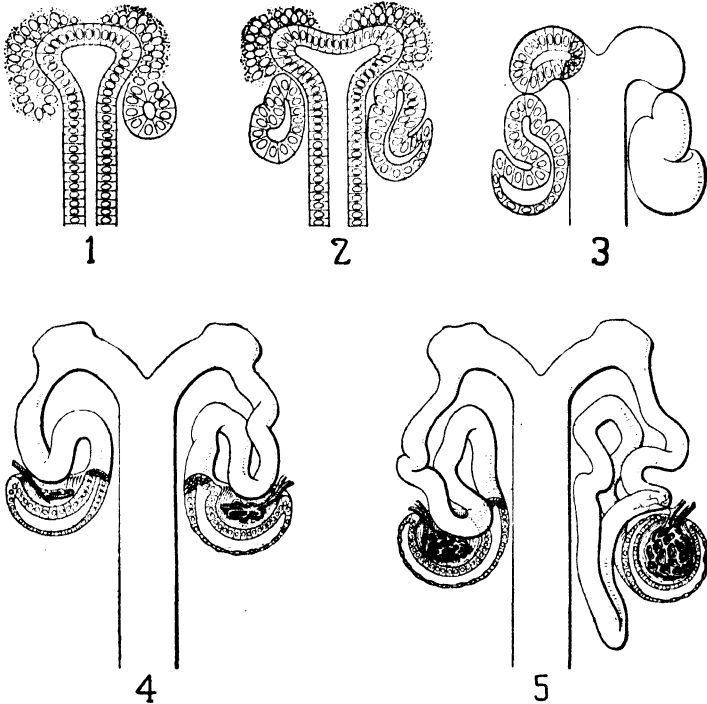


FIG. 485.—DIAGRAMS TO ILLUSTRATE THE MODE OF DEVELOPMENT OF THE URINIFEROUS TUBULES AND THE GLOMERULI. (Huber.)

Each of the above diagrams (except No. 3) exhibits two stages.

Between the uriniferous tubules, and supporting the blood-vessels, is a variable amount of connective tissue, greatest in quantity in the papillæ; it contains cleft-like lymphatics.

Nerve-fibrils ramify amongst the epithelium-cells of the tubules (fig. 484), but most of the nerves to the kidney are distributed to its blood-vessels.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE URINIFEROUS TUBULES.

The ducts of Bellini and the collecting tubules are derived as hollow sprouts from the enlarged upper end of the ureter, which in its turn is formed as a bud from the Wolffian duct of the embryo. The rest of the uriniferous tubule, including the Malpighian corpuscle, is formed from a hollow S-shaped island of cells which become differentiated in the mesoderm near the blind end of a collecting tubule. The lower part of the S forms a spoon-shaped structure, within the bowl of which the vessels of the glomeruli are developed; the sides of the bowl then grow round and completely enclose them. The upper part of the S forms a

convoluted tubule which before long makes connexion with the previously blind end of the forked collecting tubule. At first there is no sign of the looped tubule, but this presently grows down from the convoluted tubule, very much as if a part of this tube had been drawn out towards the papilla. The several stages of formation of the uriniferous tubule are shown in the diagrams marked 1 to 5 in fig. 485. These diagrams exhibit nine stages of development of the tubules, since in every one, except diagram 3, an earlier stage is represented upon the left-hand side, and a later upon the right-hand side.

THE URETER AND BLADDER.

The **ureter** (fig. 486) is a muscular tube lined by mucous membrane. The *muscular coat* is usually described as consisting of two layers of plain

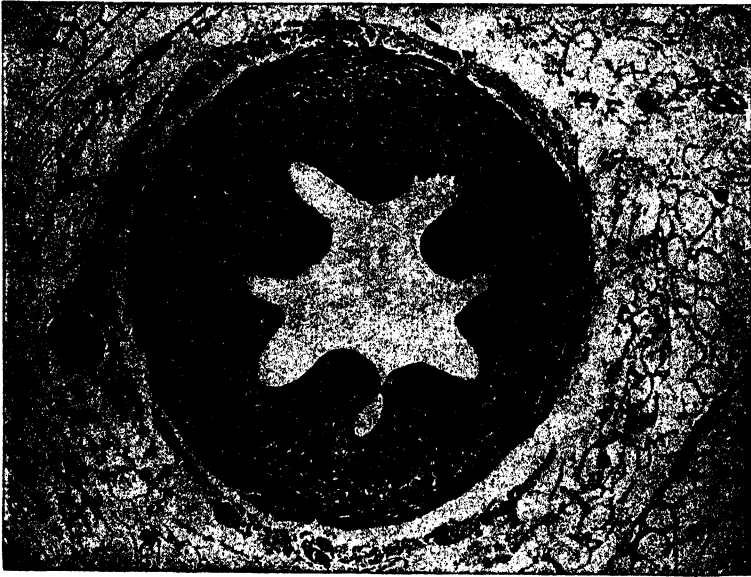


FIG. 486.—SECTION ACROSS URETER: DOG. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 90$. Photograph.

muscular tissue, an outer circular, and an inner longitudinal. In the lower part there are some longitudinal bundles external to the circular. The arrangement of the fibres, however, is usually irregular. Outside the muscular coat is a layer of connective tissue in which the blood-vessels and nerves ramify before entering the muscular layer.

The *mucous membrane* is composed of areolar tissue, and is lined by transitional epithelium, like that of the bladder.

The **urinary bladder** has a muscular wall lined by a thick mucous membrane and covered in part by a serous coat.

The *muscular wall* consists of three layers, but the innermost is incomplete. The principal fibres run longitudinally and circularly; the circular fibres are collected into a layer of some thickness which immediately sur-

rounds the commencement of the urethra. The *mucous membrane* is lined by a transitional epithelium. The shape and structure of the cells have already been studied (p. 81). Many of the superficial cells have two nuclei. Gland-like invaginations of the epithelium are occasionally found near the base of the bladder in man (fig. 487), while in the bladder of some animals well-marked glands constantly occur.

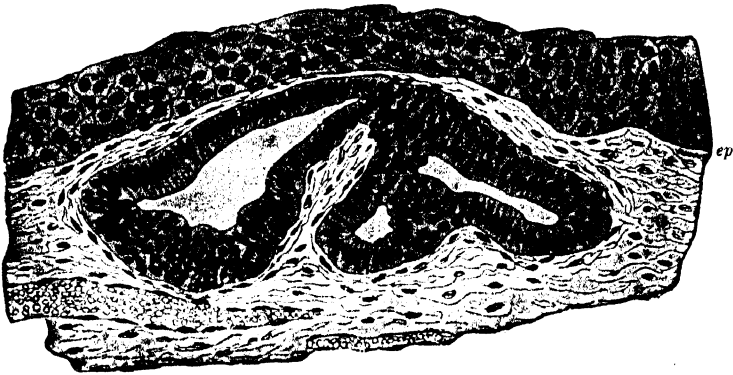


FIG. 487.—SECTION OF PART OF WALL OF BASE OF BLADDER : HUMAN. (Lendorf.) $\times 230$.

The section passes through a glandular invagination of the epithelium. *ep*, epithelium; *c*, corium.

The nerves to the bladder join gangliated plexuses and are distributed to the muscular tissue and blood-vessels. Free nerve-endings are abundant among the cells of the epithelium.

LESSON XXXVII.

THE MALE GENERATIVE ORGANS.

1. EXAMINE sections across penis (child or monkey). The blood-spaces of the organ should be injected with the fixative so as the better to exhibit the arrangement of the structures which constitute the erectile tissue. Notice the large venous sinuses of the corpora cavernosa and the smaller spaces of the corpus spongiosum; surrounded by the latter is seen the flattened tube of the urethra.

2. Examine section of prostate gland (child or monkey), fixed in Susa. Notice the glandular spaces, the plain muscular tissue and the character of the urethral epithelium.

3. Examine section of testicle and epididymis. The sections may be made from testicles (rat, cat, man) fixed in Susa; they can be stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin or with iron-hæmatoxylin. The latter is excellent for showing stages in spermatogenesis. In these sections notice the strong capsule surrounding the gland, the substance of which consists of tubules cut in various planes; and the epithelium of the tubules, which is in different phases of development in different tubules. Observe the strands of polyhedral interstitial cells, much more abundant in some animals than in others, lying in the loose tissue between the tubules; also the lymphatic clefts in that tissue. Notice in sections through the epididymis the ciliated epithelium, and spermatozoa within the tube.

Sketch carefully under a high power the contents of some of the seminiferous tubules to illustrate the mode of formation of spermatozoa.

4. Examine section of vesicula seminalis, fixed in Susa and stained with hæmatoxylin and eosin. Notice the two-layered epithelium, the more superficial cells long and columnar but not ciliated; the deeper cells short and swollen out by clear fluid.

5. Examination of living spermatozoa. Slice up with fine scissors the epididymis of a guinea-pig in 3 c.c. of Baker's buffered glucose saline. Its formula is:—

Glucose	3.0	gm.
Na ₂ HPO ₄ 12H ₂ O	0.6	"
NaCl	0.2	"
KH ₂ PO ₄	0.01	"
Aq. dest.	100.0	c.c.

Spermatozoa may be examined in this solution and their movements studied on the warm stage. To display their structure a very high power of the microscope is necessary. They may be preserved and stained as 'film' or 'smear' preparations (p. 32, § 5).

THE PENIS, URETHRA AND PROSTATE.

The **penis** (fig. 488) is mostly formed of erectile tissue collected into three principal masses—the two *corpora cavernosa*, one on each side but conjoined in the middle line, and the *corpus spongiosum* inferiorly. The corpus spongiosum is expanded at the extremity of the penis to form the glans. It is traversed

throughout by the urethra, which extends from the bladder to the apex of the glans. Each of these masses is bounded by a strong capsule of fibrous and plain muscular tissue, containing many elastic fibres and sending in strong septa or trabeculæ of the same tissues, which form the boundaries of the cavernous spaces of the erectile tissue (fig. 489).

Blood-vessels.—The arteries of the tissue run in the trabeculæ; the

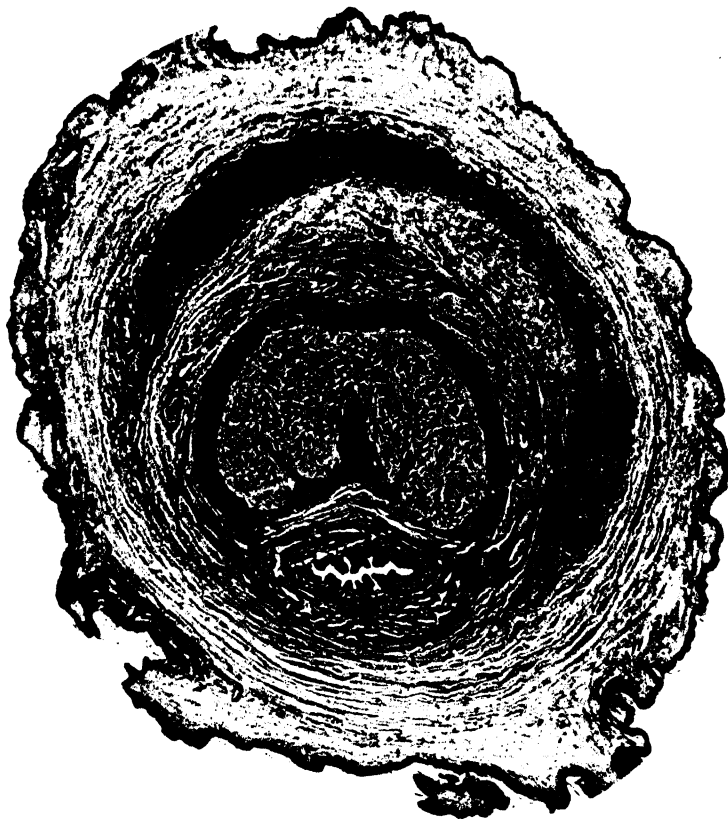


FIG. 488.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF PENIS: CHILD. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 10$.

The conjoined corpora cavernosa, enclosed by their capsule, occupy the middle of the section: below them is the irregular lumen of the urethra surrounded by corpus spongiosum, which is continued round the corpora cavernosa. Outside this is the skin of the body of the penis, and separated from it above and on the right side by an invagination of epidermis is the prepuce, which is continuous below with the integument of the body of the organ.

capillaries open into the cavernous spaces which, on the other hand, are connected with efferent veins. In injected specimens the arteries can sometimes be observed to form looped or twisted projections into the cavernous spaces into which they open directly—whence the name *helicine arteries*. The arteries of the cavernous tissue often show localised thicknesses of the inner coat. Many of the veins have longitudinal muscle-fibres in the inner coat which form pad-like projections into the lumen.

The integument, especially that of the glans, contains numerous special

nerve-end organs of the nature of end-bulbs. Pacinian bodies are found in the subcutaneous tissue of the body of the penis.



FIG. 489.—ERECTILE TISSUE OF PENIS OF CHILD, SHOWING THE BLOOD SINUSES.
(H. M. Carleton.) $\times 250$.

Note the trabeculae of connective tissue and muscle fibres (more darkly stained). Also the blood sinuses, appearing as clear spaces bounded by endothelium.

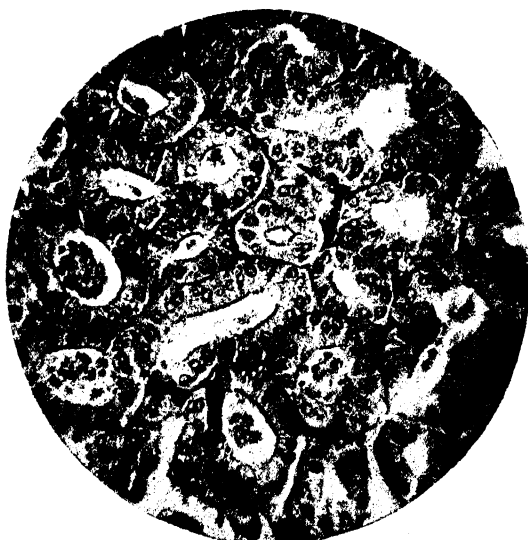


FIG. 490.—COWPER'S GLAND: CHILD. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 150$.
Preparation by F. Haynes.

Lymph-vessels are numerous in the integument of the organ and in the submucous tissue of the urethra.

~ **Urethra.**—The lumen of the urethra appears in sections across the penis in the form of an irregular cleft in the middle of the corpus spongiosum (fig. 488). It is lined in the prostatic part by transitional, but elsewhere by stratified columnar epithelium, except near its orifice, where the epithelium is stratified and squamous. The urethral epithelium rests upon a very vascular mucous membrane. Outside this is a coat of submucous tissue,



FIG. 491.—PROSTATE OF MONKEY. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 11$.

U, urethra with its surrounding venous plexus appearing as clear spaces; UM, uterus masculinus; ED, ejaculatory ducts; G, gland substance.

with two layers of plain muscular fibre—an inner longitudinal and an outer circular. Some of the fibres are cross-striated. Outside the muscular coat is a close plexus of small veins connected with, and forming part of, the corpus spongiosum.

The *mucous membrane* of the urethra is beset with small mucous glands—simple and compound—the *glands of Littre*. There are also a number of oblique recesses termed *lacunæ*. Besides these small glands and glandular recesses, two compound racemose glands open into the bulbous portion of the urethra in the male. These are *Cowper's glands*. Their acini (fig. 490)

are lined by clear columnar cells like those of the glands of Littre, and yield a mucus-like secretion.

The **prostate**, which surrounds the commencement of the urethra in the male, is a muscular and glandular mass, the glands of which are composed of wide tubular alveoli (figs. 491 and 492); their folded walls are lined by non-ciliated columnar epithelium, with smaller cells lying between them and the basement-membrane. Their ducts open upon the floor of the urethra. In older subjects the alveoli often contain colloid concretions, which may undergo calcification. The muscular tissue is abundant and of the plain variety.

The prostate is pierced by the two common ejaculatory ducts (fig. 491) which open one on each side of a median elevation of the mucous membrane

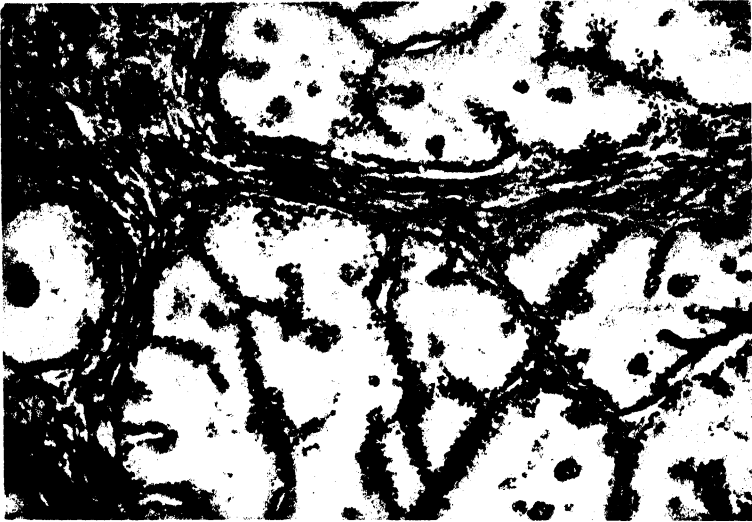


FIG. 492.—PROSTATE: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 90$. Photograph.

of the floor of the urethra. Between these orifices is an aperture leading into the prostatic utricle and known as the *uterus masculinus*. The blood-vessels and nerves of the prostate are numerous. The nerves are provided with small ganglia and are distributed partly to the muscular tissue, partly to the glands; others, which are sensory, pass to the capsule and to the wall of the urethra. The sensory nerves end in plexuses and in terminal corpuscles like simple Pacinian bodies. In addition to nervous control there is undoubtedly a marked degree of hormonal control as shown by Moore, Price and Gallagher. Thus, the prostate atrophies in rats after castration but rapidly returns to normal if testis extract be injected.

THE TESTICLE.

The **testicle** is enclosed by a strong fibrous capsule, the *tunica albuginea* (figs. 493, 494). This is covered externally with a layer of serous

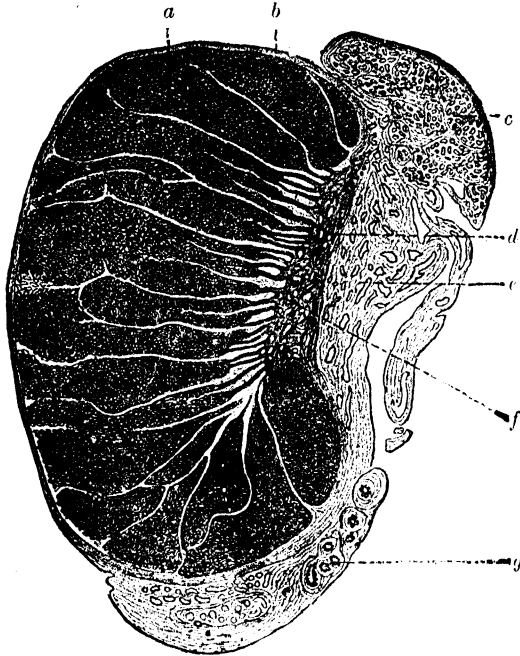


FIG. 493.—VERTICAL SECTION OF HUMAN TESTIS AND EPIDIDYMISS. (Böhm and v. Davidoff.)

a, glandular substance divided into lobules by septa of connective tissue; *b*, tunica albuginea; *c*, head of epididymis; *d*, rete testis; *e*, middle part or body of epididymis; *f*, mediastinum giving origin to the septa; *g*, sections of the commencing vas deferens.

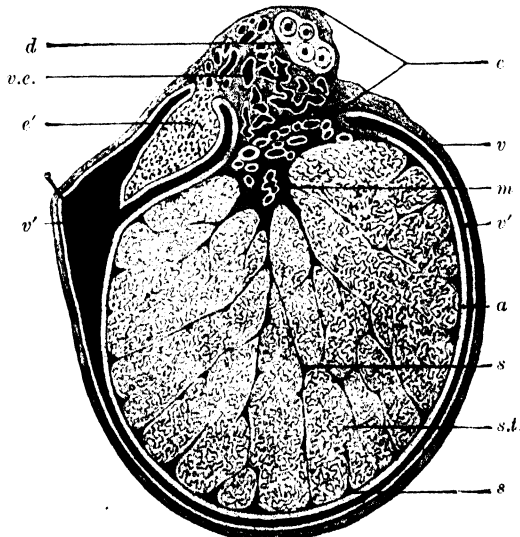


FIG. 494.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF TESTICLE AND EPIDIDYMISS: MAN. (Eberth.)

a, tunica albuginea; *s.t.*, seminiferous tubules; *s*, *s*, trabeculae dividing the gland into lobules; *v*, tunica vaginalis; *v'*, cavity of tunica vaginalis; *m*, mediastinum testis; *e*, epididymis; *e'*, caput epididymis; *d*, vas deferens (cut four times); *v.e.*, vasa efferentia.

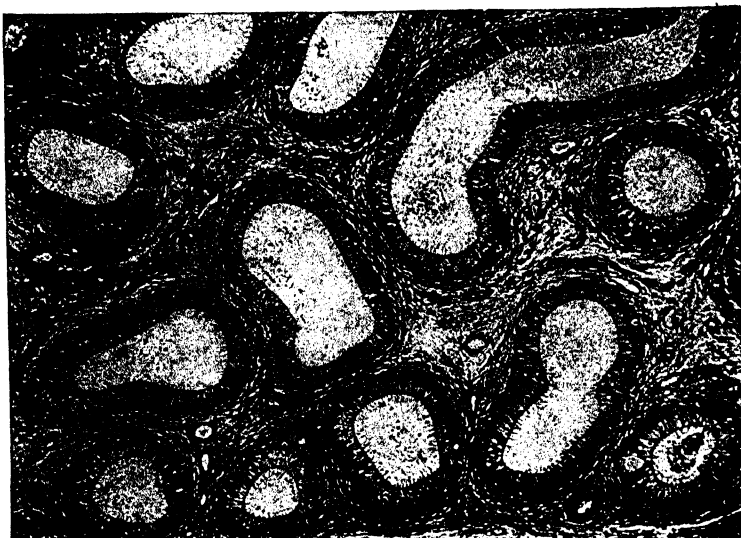


FIG. 495.—FROM A SECTION OF THE EPIDIDYMIS: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× 60. Photograph. Preparation by M. Heidenhain.



FIG. 496.—EPIDIDYMIS: HUMAN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) × 200. Photograph.
Preparation by M. Heidenhain.
The tubules contain spermatozoa.

epithelium reflected from the *tunica vaginalis*. From its inner surface there proceed fibrous processes or *trabeculae*, which imperfectly subdivide the organ into lobules. Posteriorly the capsule is prolonged into the interior of the gland in the form of a mass of fibrous tissue, which is known as the *mediastinum testis*. Attached to the posterior margin of the body of the gland is a mass, the *epididymis*, which when investigated is found to consist of a single convoluted tube, receiving at its upper end the *efferent ducts* of the



FIG. 497.—SECTION OF SEMINAL VESICLE OF MONKEY. (H. M. Carleton.)
Moderately magnified. Preparation by Thomas Marsland.

The organ is highly folded; hence different segments are involved in a single section. Two such segments are depicted. The very pleated mucous membrane is clearly shown.

testicle and prolonged at its lower end into a thick-walled muscular tube, the *vas deferens*, which conducts the secretion to the urethra.

The glandular substance of the testicle is wholly made up of *convoluted seminiferous tubules* (*tubuli contorti*), which when unravelled are of very considerable length. Each commences near the tunica albuginea, and after many windings terminates, usually joining one or two others, in a *straight tubule*. The straight tubules or *tubuli recti* pass into the mediastinum, and there form by their union a network of intercommunicating vessels of varying size, which is known as the *rete testis* (fig. 493). From the rete a limited number of *efferent ducts* or *tubules*—the *vasa efferentia*—arise, and after a few convolutions pass into the tube of the epididymis.

The *straight tubules* which lead from the convoluted seminiferous tubes

into the rete testis are lined by only a single layer of clear flattened or cubical epithelium cells. The tubules of the *rete* also have a simple epithelial lining; both in these and in the straight tubules a basement-membrane is absent, the epithelium being supported directly by the fibrous connective tissue of the mediastinum.

The *effluent tubules* which pass from the rete to the epididymis are lined



FIG. 498.—HUMAN SEMINAL VESICLE. (After Bouin.) $\times 18$.

The mucosa, *m*, is less pleated than in the monkey; *cmc*, internal layer of circular muscle; *cml*, external layer of longitudinal muscle.

by columnar ciliated epithelium. In man their lumen is irregular in section; the inner surface is pitted with glandular depressions lined by short clear non-ciliated cells.

In the embryo the seminiferous tubules, which grow from the germinal epithelium, intercommunicate and form a network—but subsequently the side branches disappear and only the main stems persist as the seminiferous tubules. But even in the adult anastomoses between the tubules may occur.

Epididymis.—This is composed of a single convoluted tube 6 to 8 metres long which receives the vasa efferentia above, and below is continued into the vas deferens. The tube is lined by long columnar cells with oval nuclei, having at their bases smaller polyhedral cells with spherical nuclei (figs. 496, 497). The columnar cells are provided with bunches of cilia projecting into the lumen of the tube; it is alleged that these cilia are not always vibratile. The cells exhibit a well-marked Golgi apparatus (see fig. 10, p. 8).

The epithelium has long been supposed to secrete the fluid in which the spermatozoa lie. For this there is cytological evidence (Nassonov). A succession of secretory vacuoles arises from the Golgi apparatus and may be traced through the cytoplasm to the lumen of the canal. Inversely, substances appear to be absorbed

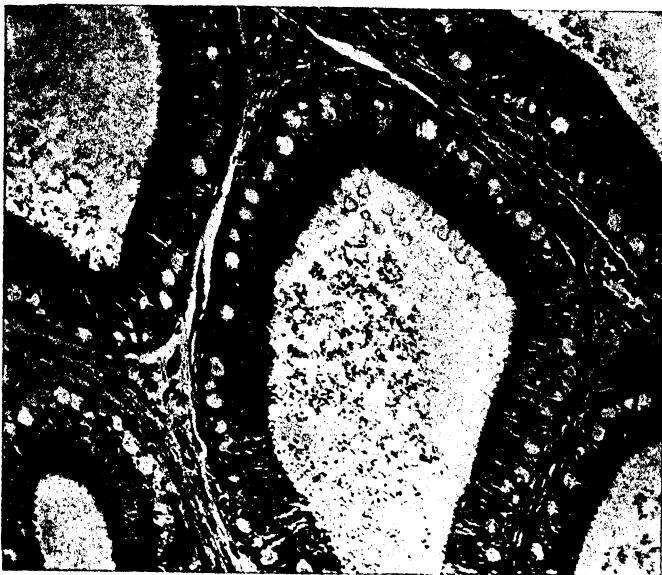


FIG. 499.—VESICULA SEMINALIS OF OX. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.
Drops of secretion are seen at the free ends of some of the cells.

from the lumen, there being also a stream of vacuoles from the free poles of the cells towards their bases.

The **vas deferens** is a thick-walled tube, having an outer layer formed of longitudinal bundles of plain muscle, and an inner equally thick layer of circular bundles of the same tissue; with this again is a thinner layer of longitudinal muscle. There is a good deal of connective and elastic tissue between the muscle bundles. The tube is lined by a mucous membrane, the inner surface of which is covered by columnar non-ciliated epithelium.

The **vesiculæ seminales** are glandular structures (fig. 498), consisting on each side of a main part, with several accessory parts, each part being composed of a convoluted tube of considerable length when unravelled. The duct joins the corresponding vas deferens. The tubules are lined by long

non-ciliated columnar epithelium cells. The tubules, which are convoluted, are held together by connective tissue containing many blood-vessels and lymphatics. Between the bases of the epithelium cells is a row of bladder-like cells occupied by clear fluid and having a very characteristic appearance in stained sections (fig. 499). The columnar cells yield a secretion which is poured out from them in the form of droplets which accumulate to form a clear or opalescent fluid filling the tubes. The mitochondria are long and filamentous; their ends project into the vacuoles that contain the secretion (Cowdry). Like the prostate the seminal vesicles atrophy after castration but return to normal following injection of testis extract (Moore, Hughes and Gallagher). This fluid, in some animals (*e.g.*, guinea-pig), has the property of coagulating

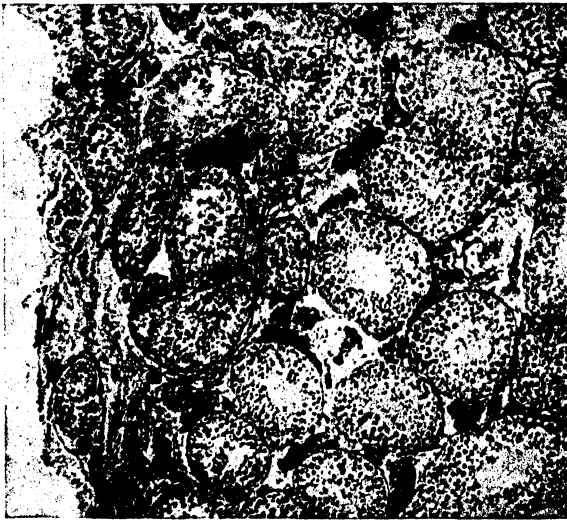


FIG. 500.—HUMAN TESTICLE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 50$. Photograph.
Preparation by M. Heidenhain.

The masses of interstitial cells are stained dark in this section.

when it is ejected into the vagina. In spite of their name the seminal-vesicles only rarely contain spermatozoa.

Intertubular tissue.—The connective tissue between the tubules of the testicle is generally of very loose texture, and contains numerous lymphatic clefts, which form an intercommunicating system of commencing lymphatic sinuses. Lying in this intertubular tissue are strands of polyhedral epithelium-like cells known as the *interstitial cells* (figs. 500 to 503), and yellowish in colour; they are abundant in some species of animals (cat, boar, fig. 503), less abundant in others (mouse, rat). They accompany the blood-vessels before these break up to form the capillary network which covers the walls of the seminiferous tubules.

The *interstitial cells* contain in many animals yellowish-brown lipid or fatty globules (staining with osmic acid), and sometimes needle-shaped

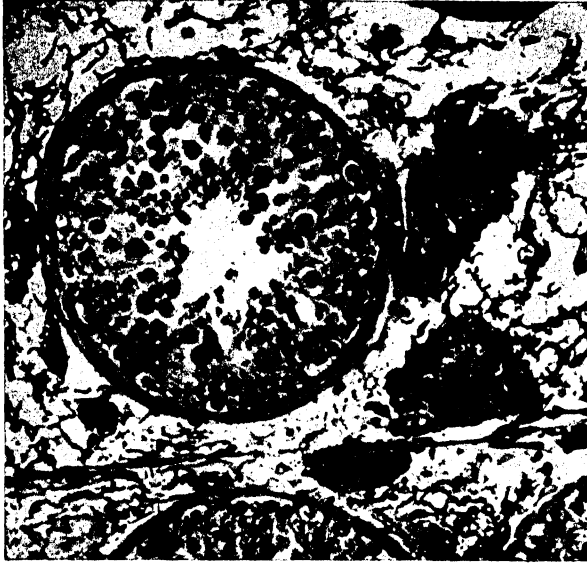


FIG. 501.—PART OF THE SAME PREPARATION AS THAT SHOWN IN FIG. 500, BUT MAGNIFIED 200 DIAMETERS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

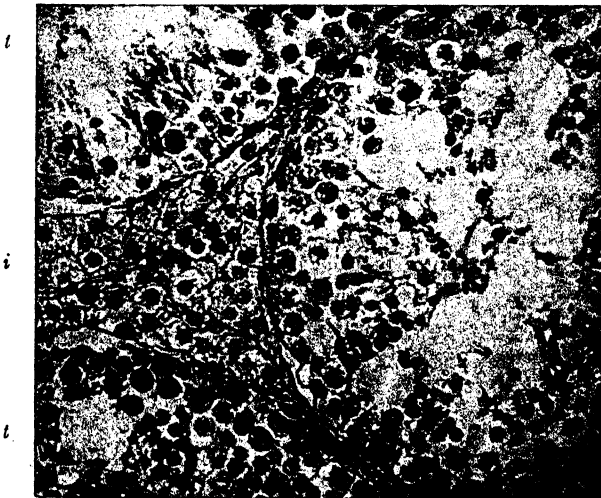


FIG. 502.—FROM A SECTION OF TESTICLE OF CAT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$.
Photograph.

t, mass of interstitial cells, lying between three tubules (t).

crystals of protein (fig. 504). Similar fatty globules may occur in the Sertoli cells of the seminiferous tubules; they are believed to pass into those cells from the interstitial tissue. *Histiocytes* are also intermingled with the inter-



FIG. 503.—SECTION OF TESTICLE OF BOAR, SHOWING THE GREAT DEVELOPMENT OF INTERSTITIAL CELLS BETWEEN THE TUBULES. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 80$. Photograph.

stitial cells of the testis. They may be distinguished from the latter not only by structural characteristics, but by the fact that they have the capacity for storing vital dyes (Stein).

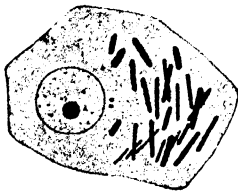


FIG. 504.—AN INTERSTITIAL CELL OF HUMAN TESTICLE, CONTAINING REINKE'S CRYSTALS. A DOUBLE CENTRIOLE IS SEEN CLOSE TO THE NUCLEUS. (Eberth.)

The internal secretion of the testis is responsible both for the development and the maintenance of the secondary sexual characters. The accessory sexual organs (prostate; seminal vesicles) are, as already pointed out, also under the control of the testis hormone. This latter is usually regarded as being formed by the interstitial cells; there is, however, evidence against this view (Champy) and it is possible that the spermatogonia or the Sertoli cells may be the source of the testicular hormone.

The **seminiferous tubules**.—The seminiferous tubules are formed of a connective-tissue membrane, which has a lamellar structure. The lamellæ are covered by flattened cells; fibres, chiefly elastic, occupy the substance of each lamella. In the adult the tubules contain several layers of epithelium-cells, but in the child there is no clear distinction into layers, the cells being all more or less similar. Of the layers seen in the tubules of the adult testicle,

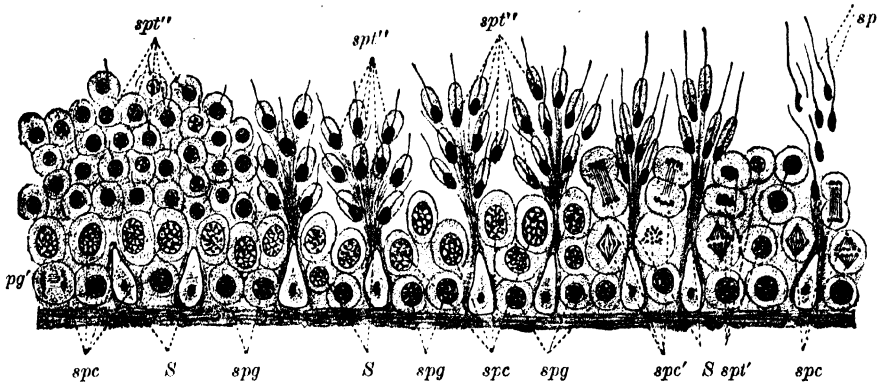


FIG. 505.—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE PHASES OF SPERMATOGENESIS IN A LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF A TUBULE: MAN. (Sobotta.)

spg, spermatogonia; *spg'*, a spermatogonium in mitosis; *spc*, spermatocytes; *spc'*, others dividing; *spt*, spermatids; *spt'*, spermatids developing into spermatozoa; *sp*, spermatozoa; *S*, cells of Sertoli.

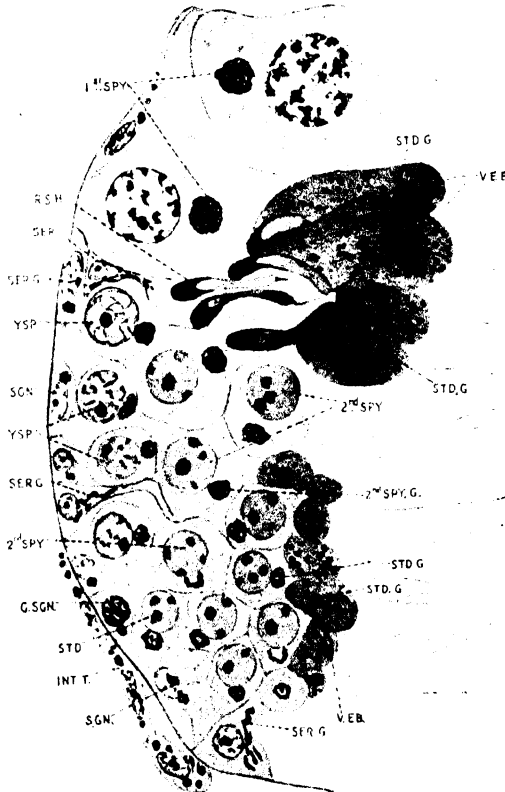


FIG. 506.—SPERMATOGENESIS: GUINEA-FIG. (Gatenby and Wigoder.)

YSP, young spermatocytes; 1st SPY, Golgi reticulum in primary spermatocytes; 2nd SPY, nuclei of secondary spermatocytes; 2nd SPY G., Golgi apparatus of secondary spermatocyte; SER G., cell of Sertoli; SER G., its Golgi apparatus; SGN, spermatogonium; G. SGN, its Golgi apparatus; STD, spermatids; STD G., their Golgi apparatus; RSH, head of developing spermatozoon; VEB, von Ebner's granules in spermatids; INT T., interstitial tissue.

the one next to the basement-membrane is a stratum of clear cubical cells (*spermatogonia*, fig. 505, *spg*), the nuclei of which for the most part exhibit the irregular network which is characteristic of the resting condition, but in some tubules show indications of division. Here and there between the spermatogonia some of the lining epithelium-cells are enlarged, and project between the more internal layers, being eventually connected with groups of developing spermatozoa. These enlarged cells are the *cells of Sertoli* (fig. 505, *S*; fig. 506) and are nutritive in function. They are easily distinguished from the spermatogonia by their large nucleolus and relative paucity of chromatin.

Next to this lining epithelium is a zone of larger cells (*spermatocytes*,



FIG. 507.—A CELL OF SERTOLI WITH WHICH THREE SPERMATIDS ARE CONNECTED: HUMAN. (Bramman.)

The cell contains globules staining with osmic acid; similar but smaller globules are also seen in the spermatids. The 'ring' formed around the tail-filament by one of the particles of the centrosome (see text) is also shown in each of these spermatids.

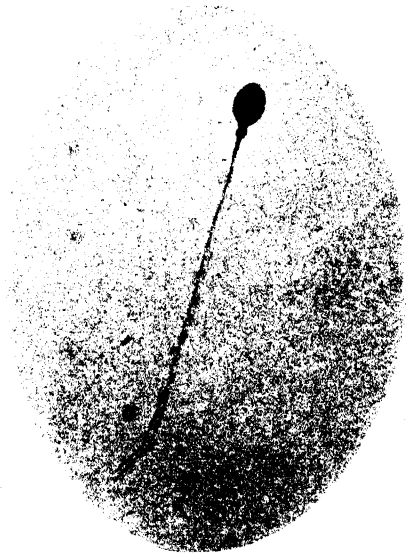


FIG. 508.—HUMAN SPERMATOZOON. (Photograph by W. Chesterman.) $\times 1000$.

fig. 505, *spc*), the nuclei of which are usually in mitotic division. Next to them, and most internal, are to be seen as the result of this division a large number of small cells with simple spherical nuclei (*spermatids*, fig. 505, *spt'*). From some of these a tail-filament is beginning to sprout (*spt''*). In other parts the spermatids are becoming elongated with the nucleus at one end; those elongated cells are gradually converted into spermatozoa. They lie in groups, their heads projecting between the deeper cells, and are connected with one of the Sertoli cells of the lining epithelium, their tails projecting into the lumen of the tubule. But as the spermatozoa (*sp*) become mature they gradually shift altogether towards the lumen, where they eventually

become free from the Sertoli cells. During the time that one set of spermatozoa has been forming, another set of spermatocytes is produced by the division of the spermatogonia, and after the discharge of the first set of spermatozoa the process of division of spermatocytes to form spermatids and development of spermatozoa from these is repeated as before.

The **spermatozoa**.—Each spermatozoon (sperm-cell) consists of three parts, a head, a middle part or body, and a long tapering tail (figs. 508, 509). In man the *head* is of pointed oval shape, somewhat flattened, especially towards its apex; in some animals it bears a small barb-like projection at this extremity. The apical part is covered by a cap of a somewhat different appearance from the rest—the *head-cap* or *acrosome*. The *body* is in man short and cylindrical and has a spiral fibre passing round it. An axial fibre,

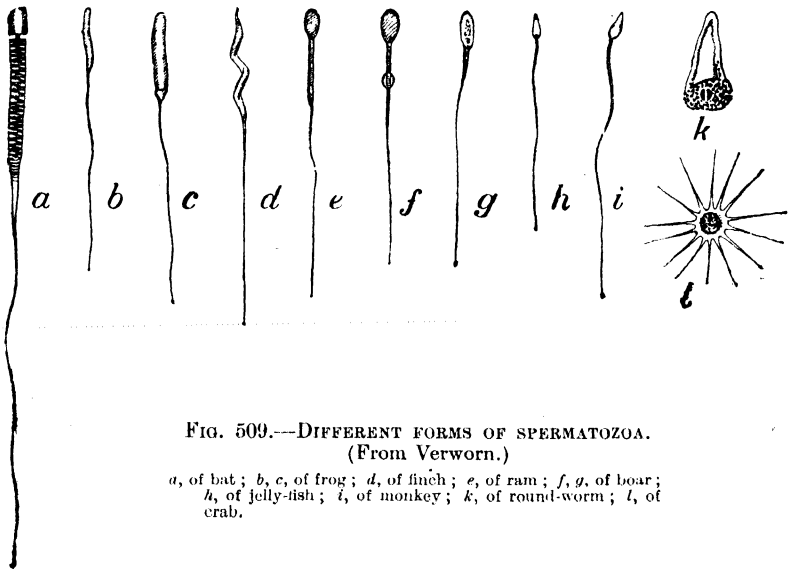


FIG. 509.—DIFFERENT FORMS OF SPERMATOZOA.
(From Verworn.)

a, of bat; b, c, of frog; d, of finch; e, of ram; f, g, of boar;
h, of jelly-fish; i, of monkey; k, of round-worm; l, of
crab.

itself fibrillated, passes from a knob close to the head right through the body and tail. The *tail* is the longest part of the spermatozoon, and when examined with the microscope in the fresh condition is seen to be in continual rhythmic lateral or spiral motion, like a cilium. The extremity of the tail (end-piece) forms a distinct part of the spermatozoon; it is often bifid (fig. 508). Human spermatozoa are about 50 μ long.

In different animals the shape of the head and the extent of middle-piece and tail vary greatly (fig. 509). In the rat and mouse the head is curved and is set obliquely on the middle-piece. This is of considerable extent, and has a closely wound spiral filament encircling it. In the newt the head is long and tapering, and the tail has a membranous expansion, attached in a spiral manner along its whole length. Such an expansion has also been described in the human spermatozoon. In decapod Crustacea, which possess no cilia, the spermatozoa are stellate and motionless; in nematode worms they are amoeboid. Occasionally two distinct kinds of spermatozoa are met with in the same species of animal, one kind being far

the larger in size (giant spermatozoa) but much less numerous. Such giant spermatozoa have been observed in man.

Although the tail of the spermatozoon is usually considered to be a cilium, it exhibits greater complexity of structure than ordinary cilia.

Spermatogenesis.—Spermatozoa are developed from the small cells (spermatids) which form the innermost stratum of the seminal epithelium, and these are themselves produced by double division of the large spermatocytes of the second layer. It is probable that fresh spermatocytes are formed by division of some of the lining epithelium-cells or spermatogonia. The cycle of changes therefore which takes place is as follows: 1. Division of a lining epithelium-cell or spermatogonium into two, one of which grows larger,

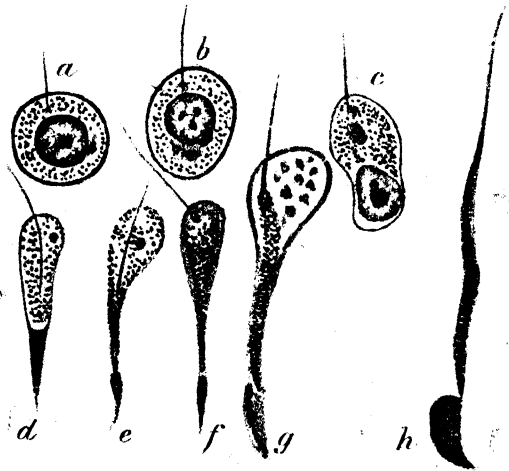


FIG. 510.—CELLS FROM THE TESTICLE OF THE MOUSE IN PROCESS OF TRANSFORMATION INTO SPERMATOZOA. (Benda.)

The mitochondria are darkly stained and are seen in the successive stages (*a* to *g*) to be arranging themselves so as to constitute the spiral filament of the spermatozoon (*h*).

becomes a spermatocyte, and passes into the second layer, while the other remains in the first layer. 2. Division of the spermatocyte. 3. Further division of the daughter-spermatocytes thus produced. The four cells (spermatids) which result from this double division possess only one-half the somatic number of chromosomes in their nuclei, 'reduction' having been effected in the final cell-divisions by which the spermatids are produced (p. 19). 4. Elongation of the spermatids and their gradual conversion into spermatozoa. As they undergo this conversion their grouping becomes more evident, and each group is found to be connected with a cell of Sertoli (fig. 505, *S*), which ministers to their nutrition. The Sertoli cell undergoes a gradual process of elongation, so that the spermatozoa by the time they are fully developed are brought to the lumen of the tube, in which they then become free. In the meantime other alternate groups of spermatids

from which the next crop of spermatozoa will be derived are being formed in the same manner, passing through the same cycle of changes. Hence different phases of development may be observed even in different parts of the same tubule. The diagram on p. 421 illustrates the cycles of changes described.

Each spermatid becomes converted into a spermatozoon in the following manner (fig. 510). The nucleus forms the chief part of the head, while the tail develops as an outgrowth of the centrosome and cytoplasm. The tail-filament appears within the protoplasm, growing out from the centriole of the cell, which lies close to the nucleus. The centriole is double; one of its two particles forms an annular expansion or ring, which as development proceeds, moves down the tail-filament until it reaches the place where this leaves the cytoplasm; here it ultimately forms the limit of the body or middle-piece of the spermatozoon. The Golgi bodies come to lie against the anterior pole of the nucleus (fig. 506); a vacuome is formed here and from it the acrosome of the spermatozoon is produced. As development proceeds this may become indistinguishable from the rest of the head. Fitting over the posterior part of the head, like the cup of an acorn, is a conical band (fig. 506); this is formed, according to Gatenby and Wigoder, out of part of the Golgi apparatus. The spiral fibre of the middle-piece is developed from mitochondria (fig. 510). A portion of the protoplasm of each spermatid containing a number of particles—the seminal granules of v. Ebner—becomes detached and disintegrated before the spermatozoon is fully matured.

A few spermatocytes undergo incomplete division; the resulting spermatids are giant spermatids and contain either one large nucleus or two or more nuclei which ultimately blend to form the head of the spermatozoon. In these cases a corresponding number of centrosomes is seen; from each of these centrosomes a tail-filament may become developed.

LESSON XXXVIII.

THE FEMALE GENERATIVE ORGANS.

1. EXAMINE sections of ovary of (a) non-pregnant, and (b) pregnant animal (rabbit or cat). If from a pregnant animal the organ will be largely occupied by corpora lutea. Study the sections with a low power, observing the small and large Graafian follicles, each enclosing an ovum, scattered through the stroma; also the corpora lutea and degenerating follicles. Make a general sketch of a section under the low power. Then sketch carefully one or two of the follicles with their contents under a high power.

2. Examine sections of human or, failing this, monkey ovary. Notice the far larger proportion of stroma as compared with other animals and the relatively smaller number of Graafian follicles. If a corpus luteum is present, observe its folded wall and the cells composing this. Corpora albicantia may also be seen.

3. Take the fresh ovary of a sheep and with a needle or fine scalpel-point prick one of the largest and most prominent of the Graafian follicles. The organ must be held just over a slide so that on pricking the follicle the fluid contents may spurt out on to the glass. Examine the drop of liquor folliculi with a low power for the escaped ovum, which will be surrounded by follicular cells. When found place a piece of thick hair in the drop, cover with cover-glass and examine with high power.

4. Examine section across human or monkey Fallopian tube. Sketch a section under the low power.

5. Examine section across a cornu of a bicorned uterus of a bitch, cat or rabbit. Observe the thickness of the muscular and mucous coats respectively. Notice the columnar epithelium lining the organ (partly ciliated) and extending into the glands of the mucous membrane. Draw a part of a section under the low power.

6. Examine sections of human uterus (a) of body, (b) of cervix.

7. Examine section of placenta. Notice the venous spaces occupied by maternal blood, and within the spaces sections of the foetal villi.

8. Examine section of human or monkey vagina. Notice the stratified epithelium which lines it and which is continued over the projecting part of the os uteri. If the section is taken through the anterior wall, the urethra may be included in it.

A suitable fixative for these organs is Susa. Formol may also be used, but has the inconvenience of making the tissues hard. Suitable stains are hæmatoxylin and eosin; also hæmatoxylin and Van Gieson.

THE OVARY.

The ovary is a small body lying at the back of the peritoneal cavity. It is covered by peritoneum the cells of which are cubical and not flattened as is the case with the other peritoneal surfaces. This specialised area of peritoneum is known as the *germinal epithelium*. The ovary is attached at the *hilus* to the suspensory ligaments of the uterus; it is at this point also that the ovarian blood-vessels and nerves enter the organ.

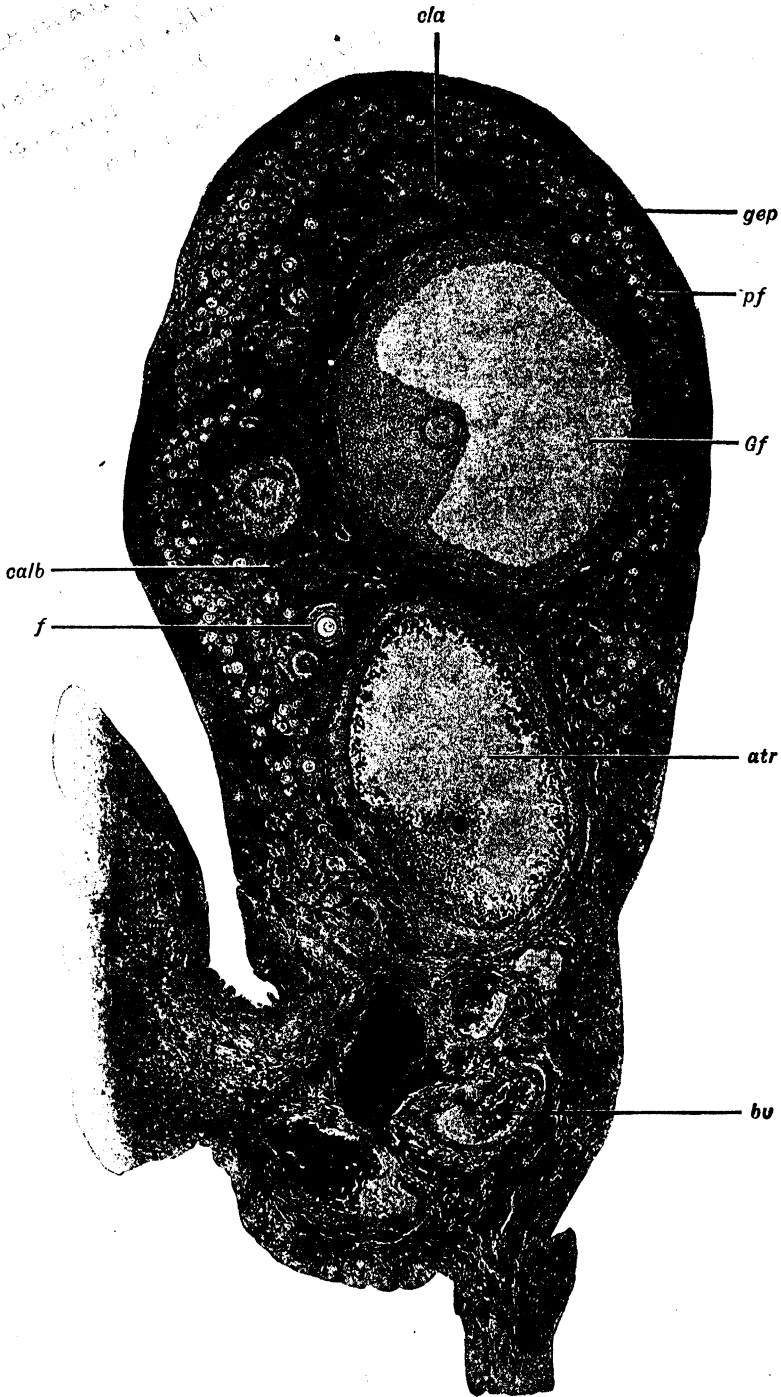


FIG. 511.—OVARY OF MONKEY. (After Maximow-Bloom.) $\times 42$.

bv, blood-vessels of hilus; *gef*, germinal epithelium; *pf*, primary oocytes; *f*, small Graafian follicle; *Of*, large follicle; *cla*, earlier stage of regression of *calb*, corpus albicans; *atr*, atretic (*f.*, degenerating) follicle.

There are few organs which, in the life of the individual, show such variations in structure. Thus the ovary of a baby, the ovary during the period of sexual maturity, and the senile ovary are all very dissimilar structures. Again, both the naked eye and histological appearances vary considerably in relation to menstruation and pregnancy.

The ovary of a sexually mature woman or monkey will serve to illustrate the following account (see fig. 511). The ovary (as already described) is surrounded by the *germinal epithelium* (*gep.*), its *hilus* is remarkable for the relative size and the spiral course pursued by the blood-vessels, particularly the arteries—whence the name *helicine arteries* (*bv.*). Large numbers of relatively large, round cells with spherical nuclei can be seen beneath the germinal epithelium (*pf.*). These are the *primary oocytes*, and their subse-

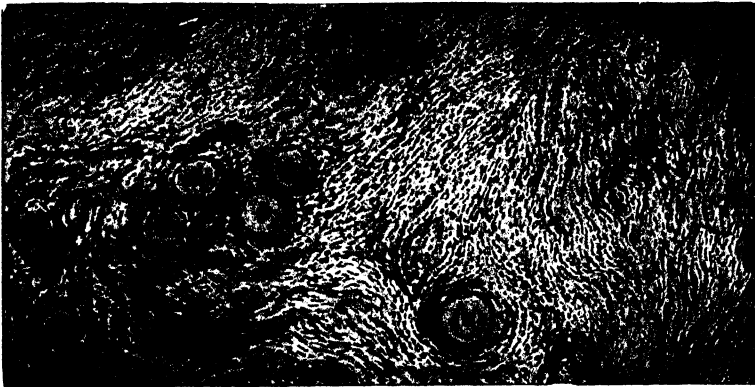


FIG. 512.—SECTION OF PART OF HUMAN OVARY SHOWING SMALL GRAAFIAN FOLLICLES EMBEDDED IN A FIBRO-CELLULAR STROMA. (Sellheim.)

quent fate is either (*a*) expulsion from the ovary as mature ova, or (*b*) degeneration and disappearance after attaining often a considerable size (*atr.*); this degenerative process, known as *atresia* (see p. 432), is far more common than the expulsion of fully mature ova. A fairly mature follicle is depicted at *Gf.* and an atretic follicle and ovum at *atr.*

All the structures described above lie in the ovarian *stroma*. This is composed mostly of collagen fibres interspersed with much rarer fibres of smooth muscle. Spreading through this mass may be seen blood-vessels, lymphatics and nerves. The latter are mostly amyelinate, their endings ramifying over the muscle fibres of the arteries.

Often such a section shows a large mass, more or less filling the cavity of a follicle from which the ovum has been previously discharged (see figs. 519 and 521). This is the *corpus luteum*, the mode of formation of which is described on p. 435. Finally, one or more irregular masses of dense fibrous tissue may be seen (515); these are the *corpora albicantia* and represent the final regression of the corpora lutea.

The various stages in the formation of the Graafian follicle, its conversion

into the corpus luteum and the final regression of the latter into the corpus albicans will now be described.



FIG. 513.—LATE STAGE IN THE ATRESIA OF TWO FOLLICLES. (H. M. Carleton.)
Only the shrunk and pleated zone pellucide of the egg-cells persist.

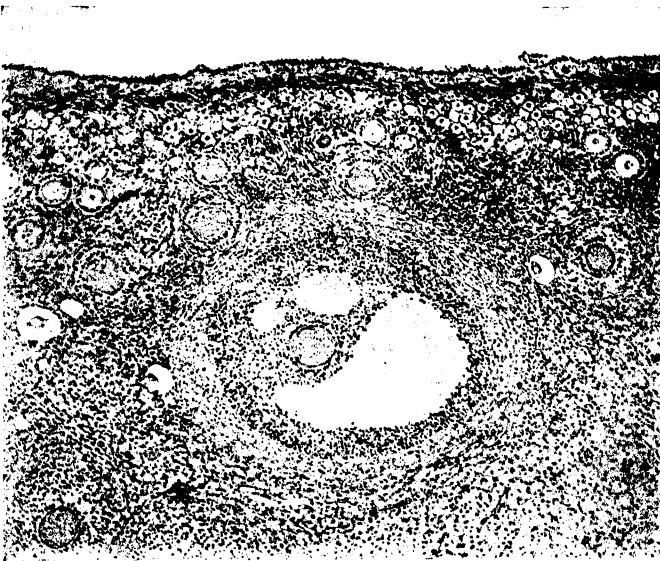


FIG. 514.—SECTION OF OVARY OF RABBIT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 60$. Photograph.
One large Graafian follicle and a number of smaller follicles are seen, the smallest forming a layer near the surface. Notice the tunica albuginea, a condensed layer of collagen fibres covering the surface; the latter bounded by the germinal epithelium.

1. GRAAFIAN FOLLICLES.—Each Graafian follicle has a proper wall, the *theca folliculi*, formed externally of a connective-tissue layer derived from the

stroma, with a special inner layer containing large cells ; both strata are highly vascular. Each follicle contains an *ovum* and *epithelium*. In the smallest follicles the ovum is small, and the epithelium of the follicle is formed of a single layer of cells which may be flattened against the ovum (fig. 512). In somewhat larger follicles the epithelium-cells are in two layers, and are columnar in shape (fig. 518, E). In still larger ones, each of the two layers is formed of several strata of cells, and fluid has begun to collect between the layers at one part. Of the two layers, the one which lines the cavity of the

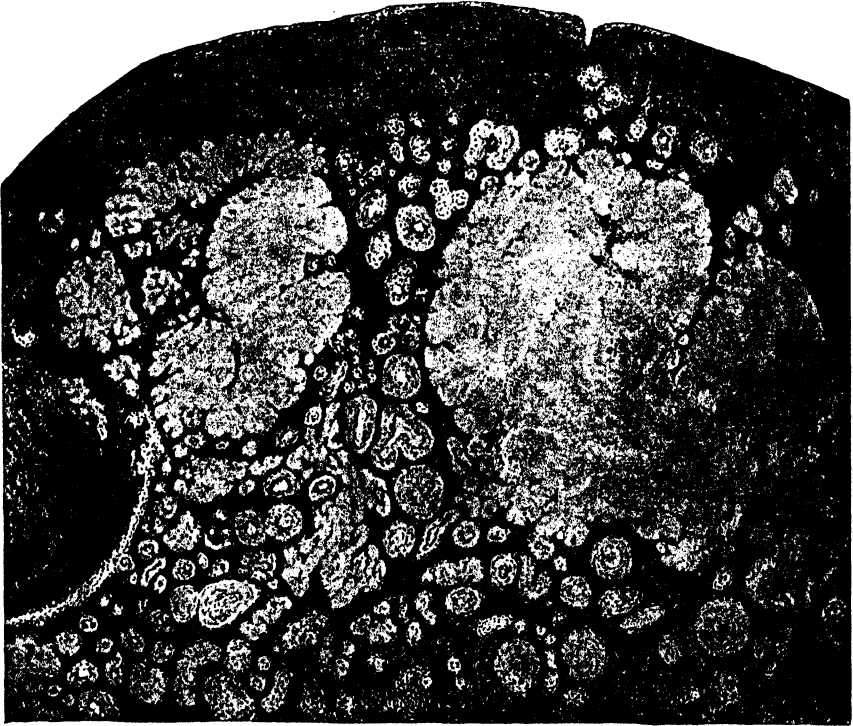


FIG. 515.—OVARY FROM WOMAN OF 58, SHOWING CORPORA ALBICANTIA. (Sellheim.)

follicle is termed the *membrana granulosa*, while the mass of cells which more immediately surrounds the ovum is known as the *cumulus* or *discus proligerus*. All the cells of the follicles, including the ova, possess a well-developed Golgi apparatus.

In the largest follicles the fluid has much increased in amount, so that the follicle has become gradually larger and more tense. Finally it reaches and projects from the surface of the ovary, where it eventually bursts, and the liquor folliculi, with its contained ovum, is set free. The existence of plain muscular tissue has been described in the wall of the Graafian follicle (Guttmacher). The contraction of this may contribute towards the bursting of the follicle.

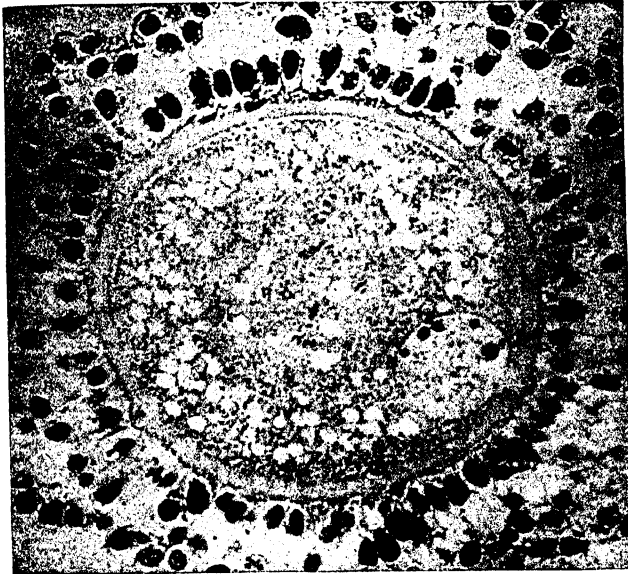


FIG. 516.—OVARIAN OVUM OF RABBIT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 400$. Photograph.

The ovum is enclosed within a clear thick membrane (zona pellucida) outside of which, and adhering to it, are epithelial cells of the Graafian follicle. The protoplasm of the ovum shows spaces in which the yolk globules originally lay. The nucleus (germinal vesicle) lies near the periphery; it contains several stained globules, the largest of which may be looked upon as the nucleolus (germinal spot).

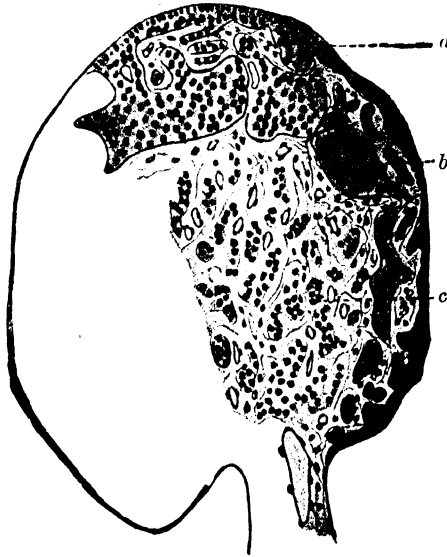


FIG. 517.—OVARY OF 28-DAY RABBIT, SHOWING THICKENED GERMINAL EPITHELIUM GROWING INTO STROMA. (Felix and Bühler.)

a, germinal epithelium; b, a thickened downgrowth from this epithelium; c, stroma of ovary.

It is probable that the hormone *æstrin* is produced by the follicular cells; it controls the development and co-ordination of the female secondary sexual organs.

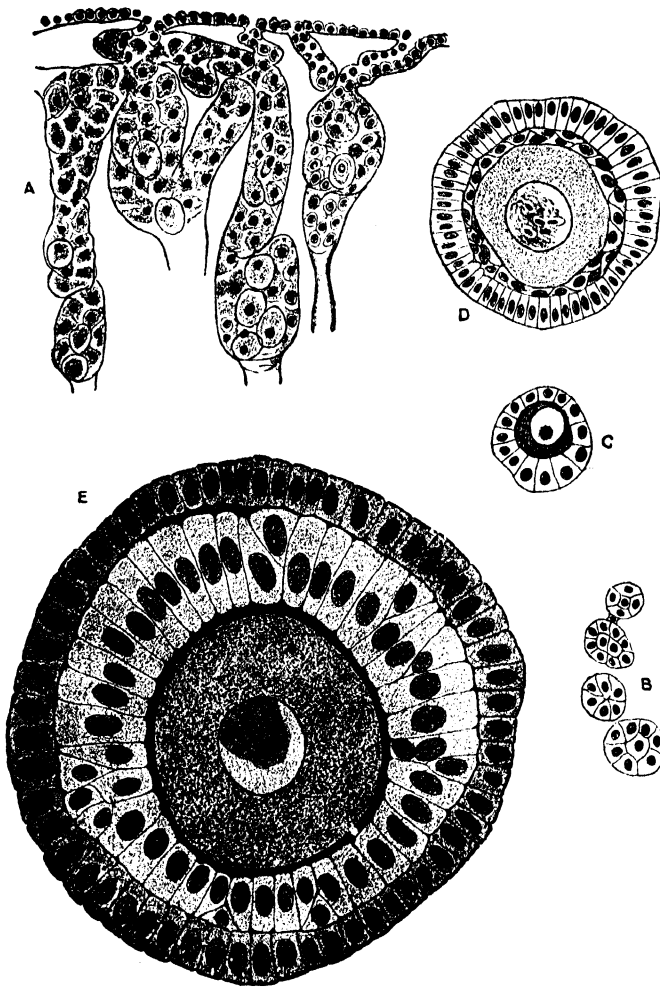


FIG. 518.—VARIOUS STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAAFIAN FOLLICLES OF THE RABBIT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

A, from ovary of young rabbit, showing 'egg-tubes' of Pflüger growing in from germinal epithelium; some of the tubes contain primitive ova; B, primitive Graafian follicles formed from the breaking up of an egg-tube; C, a young Graafian follicle, with a single layer of follicle epithelium; D, a somewhat older follicle, with the second layer forming within the first; E, a more advanced follicle, showing two complete layers of columnar epithelium surrounding the ovum within the follicle.

Follicular degeneration.—The number of ova present before birth is many times the number found at puberty. A further decrease (only accountable for to a very slight extent by the shedding of ripe ova) occurs throughout life. This disappearance of follicles by degeneration or *atresia*

is especially marked during the cessation of ovulation during pregnancy. The ovum of an atresic follicle may show karyokinesis; sometimes it segments. The nucleus and cytoplasm degenerate, but the zona pellucida persists for a long time as a very characteristic pleated, hyaline body (fig. 513). Degenerative phenomena appear in the follicular walls also, the fluid is absorbed and the follicle becomes eventually replaced by the ingrowing connective tissue of the theca (figs. 511 and 513). After the menopause a pronounced atresia of Graafian follicles occurs.

The *ova* or *oocytes* are large spherical cells, 0.1 mm. or rather more in diameter. When fully formed (fig. 516), as in the largest Graafian follicles, each ovum is surrounded by a thick transparent membrane, the *zona pellucida*

bl



FIG. 519.—CORPUS LUTEUM OF RABBIT FORMED OF TRABECULÆ OF LARGE LUTEAL CELLS WITH SINUSOIDAL VESSELS BETWEEN THE COLUMNS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 60$. Photograph.

A blood-clot (*bl*) is seen near the middle of the corpus luteum. Just below this is a kind of centrifugal fibrous tissue formed by organisation of part of the clot.

seu radiata. Within this is the cytoplasm of the oocyte containing a few inclusions, such as droplets of yolk and fat. Lying in the cytoplasm, generally eccentrically, is the large clear round nucleus or *germinal vesicle*, which invariably has a well-marked nucleolus, the *germinal spot*, and sometimes more than one.

The *zona pellucida* is penetrated by fine pores through which pass filaments from the cells of the *discus proligerus* which are in immediate contact with it (G. Retzius).

Oogenesis.—Both the ova and the epithelium of the Graafian follicles originate from the germinal epithelium of the embryo. This forms at first

a simple layer covering the stroma, but later becomes thickened and multiple. After a time rounded cords of epithelium-cells, the *egg-tubes* of *Pflüger* (fig. 517 ; fig. 518, A), grow inwards into the stroma, while this at the same time grows outwards into the thickened epithelium. The cords presently become broken up by ingrowths of stroma into isolated nests of epithelium-cells (fig. 518, B), each of which may be taken to represent a Graafian follicle. Some of the cells become enlarged to form primitive ova ; usually there is one such



FIG. 520.—A PART OF THE SECTION SHOWN IN THE PREVIOUS FIGURE.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.

The columns of luteal cells and the cicatricial tissue to which they converge are well seen in this figure.

enlarged cell in each nest, the remaining cells forming the epithelium of the follicle (fig. 518, C). It would appear that while the protoplasm of the ovum remains connected with the cells of the discus proligerus by fine processes which pass through pores in the zona pellucida, on the other hand the epithelium-cells of the follicle are themselves interconnected by protoplasmic bridges, so that the whole forms a syncytium.

New formation of follicles from the germinal epithelium may, according to Kingery, occur in the mouse up to the time of sexual maturity. In the ferret, according to Robinson, new follicles are formed throughout the whole of the functional life of the ovary.

The stroma connective-tissue cells adjacent to the follicles become grouped around the latter and eventually form the *theca folliculi* of the follicles.

2. **CORPORA LUTEA.**—These are yellowish masses, which are developed out of the Graafian follicles after the ova has been extruded. They consist of columns of large cells, the *luteal cells*, containing lipid globules, with intervening trabeculae of vascular fibrous tissue. In most animals the trabeculae converge to a central stand of connective tissue occupying the axis of the nodule (figs. 519, 520). The columns of cells are not unlike those of the cortex

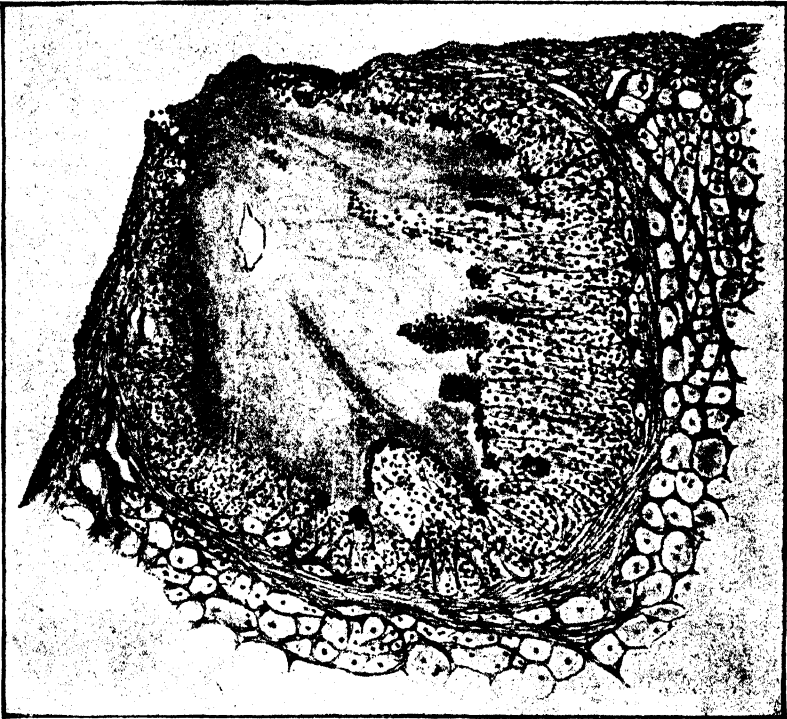


FIG. 521.—EARLY DEVELOPMENT OF CORPUS LUTEUM OF RABBIT. (L. F. Messel.)¹

The place of rupture of the follicle is still widely open. The membrana granulosa is arranged in columns, with vascular connective tissue ingrowths from the theca folliculi between the columns. There is some haemorrhage into the follicle. Interstitial cells are seen in the stroma outside the theca.

of the suprarenal gland. In the human subject the cells of the corpus luteum are massed into pleats or folds, arranged perpendicularly to the wall of the follicle, with vascular connective tissue in the interspaces. Numerous capillary blood-vessels, of a sinus-like character, ramify amongst the luteal cells.

The corpus luteum produces the hormone *Progestin*, which facilitates the implantation of the fertilised ovum in the uterus; it also inhibits ovulation during pregnancy.

¹ From F. A. H. Marshall, *The Physiology of Reproduction*.

The lutein cells are derived from the membrana granulosa after the follicle has burst and expelled the liquor folliculi along with the ovum and its discus proligerus. There is often a central extravasation of blood. But, as would appear from the work of Aschoff and others, most of this is formed *not* when the follicle ruptures but during subsequent (and especially the first) menstruations, when the ovary becomes periodically congested.

It was formerly thought that the luteal cells were derived from the theca and stroma, all the granulosa cells being extruded with the ovum. Recent work, however, points to the membrana granulosa as being in most, if not in all, mammals the only source of luteal tissue; but in few, such as the sow, the theca cells may, it is thought, assist in its formation.

The duration of the corpus luteum in the human female depends on whether the ovum is fertilised or not. In the former case it hypertrophies to form the *corpus luteum verum*, which persists for about six months. If the ovum is not fertilised, the corpus remains smaller than when fertilisation takes place. But, apart from the differences in size and duration, it retains the same structure and is known as a *corpus luteum spurium*. Its function, however, is very different, since it begins to regress some two weeks after ovulation.

3. *Regression of the corpus luteum.*—No matter whether the ovum be fertilised or not the corpus degenerates in either case in the same way. The columns of luteal cells show degenerative changes (appearance of globules of fat); collagen fibres grow in between them; the organ shrinks; the capillaries are obliterated and finally the whole structure becomes converted into a mass of fibrous tissue—the *corpus albicans* (figs. 511 and 515). Some pigment is often found in its centre; it is derived from the hæmoglobin of the red cells previously extravasated (see above).

Menstruation and ovulation are not coincident in man. Ovulation occurs about fourteen days after the commencement of menstruation.

Häggstrom examined the ovaries of an unmarried woman of twenty-two, who had died from CO poisoning, with regard to the number and condition of the Graafian follicles. The ovaries were of unequal size. The smaller had about 17,000 follicles, the larger about 25,000. Most of the follicles were very small; only 219 were over 100 μ in diameter. Liquor folliculi had begun to form in only 21 follicles. Five follicles had each 2 ova. About 2 per cent. of the ova had each 2 nuclei. The smaller ovary had 4 corpora lutea, the larger 5. There were 10 corpora albicanti in the smaller, 48 in the larger ovary. It is clear, therefore, that far more ova are formed than are discharged during life, and that many more Graafian follicles become atretic than come to maturity.

THE FALLOPIAN TUBES.

The **Fallopian tubes** or **oviducts** are lined by a very vascular mucous membrane which is partly covered with ciliated epithelium, and has numerous longitudinal folds or rugæ with depressions between (fig. 522). The ciliated cells are interspersed with non-ciliated columnar cells which contain granules. The cilia beat towards the uterus and are most numerous at the top, and least numerous at the bottom of the tube. After the menopause the cilia



FIG. 522.—SECTION OF AMPULLARY PORTION OF FALLOPIAN TUBE OF A WOMAN,
 AT. 30 YEARS. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 34$.

The muscular layers and the highly pleated mucosa are exhibited. Note the tortuous blood-vessels in the wall of the tube and in the broad ligament.



FIG. 523.—A SMALL PORTION OF THE ISTHMIC SEGMENT OF THE HUMAN TUBE.
 (S. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 150$.

disappear. Externally the tube is covered by a serous coat, within which is a thin longitudinal stratum of plain muscular fibres overlying circular fibres of the same tissue ; these layers are not distinctly marked off from one another.

The Fallopian tube commences near the ovary with an open end, the margins of which are spread out into a number of processes termed *fimbriae*. One or two of these fimbriae are directly attached to the surface of the ovary in the manner shown in fig. 524. In the human being the tube is commonly divided into ampullary and isthmic portions in addition to the fimbriae. The *ampulla* succeeds the latter ; its mucosa is highly pleated (see fig. 522).



FIG. 524.—SECTION OF OVARY OF GUINEA-PIG AT THE PLACE OF ATTACHMENT OF THE FIMBRIATED END OF THE FALLOPIAN TUBE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph.

Note the ciliated epithelium covering the fimbriae, continued into the much smaller non-ciliated cells of the ovarian surface. Observe also the numerous and large blood-vessels of the fimbriae.

The *isthmus* is thicker walled than the ampullary segment while its mucosa is far less folded internally (see fig. 523). Each Fallopian tube terminates distally in the uterus, opening on each side at the upper angle of the body of the uterus. In mammals which possess a bicorned uterus, the Fallopian tube is directly continued and enlarged into the corresponding cornu.

THE UTERUS.

The **human uterus** is composed of two parts, the body and the cervix. The body is formed of the following layers (fig. 525) :—

1. A *serous layer*, derived from the peritoneum, which covers the greater part of the fundus.
2. A *muscular layer*, which is of great thickness and is formed of plain muscular fibres disposed in three, more or less blended, strata. Of these the outer is thin and has its fibres arranged partly longitudinally, partly circularly.

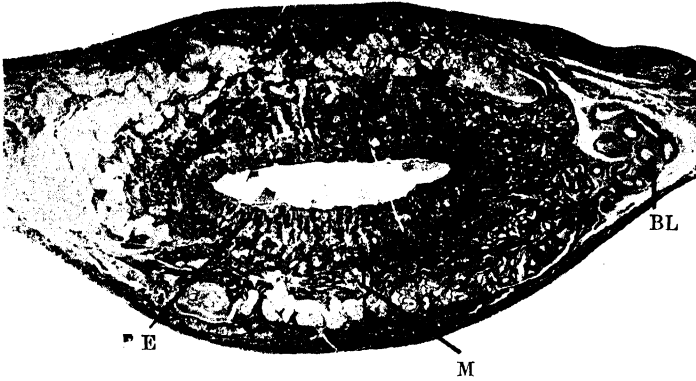


FIG. 525.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF BODY OF UTERUS OF MONKEY.
(H. M. Carleton.) $\times 5$.

BL, broad ligament containing blood-vessels; M, muscular coat; E, endometrium. The latter is in places being shed by the pressure of the underlying blood (early menstruation).



FIG. 526.—MUSCLE-CELLS FROM THE HUMAN UTERUS: (a) IN THE VIRGIN CONDITION
(b) IN ADVANCED PREGNANCY. Drawn to the same scale. (Sellheim.)

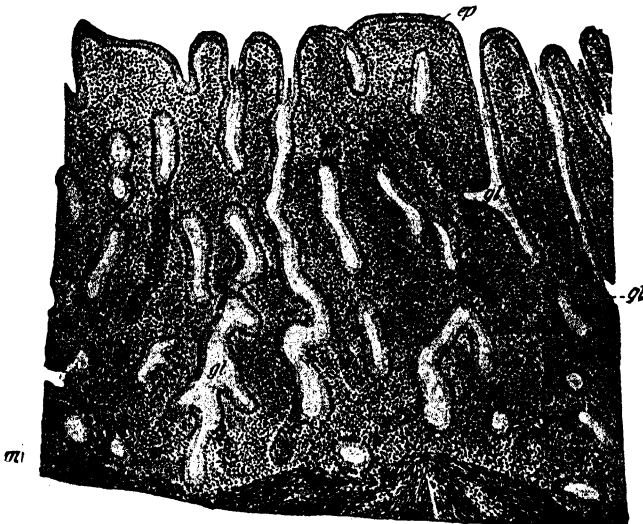


FIG. 527.—SECTION OF THE UTERINE MUCOUS MEMBRANE; MID-INTERVAL. (Sobotta.)
 $\times 150$.

ep, epithelium of cavity; gl, glands; m, part of muscular wall.

The middle, on the other hand, is thick ; its fibres run in different directions, and it contains the ramifications of the larger blood-vessels. The inner layer, again, is thinner and has both longitudinal and circular fibres, many of the latter being prolonged internally into the deeper part of the mucous membrane ; the extremities of the uterine glands extend between and amongst the muscle-fibres. In pregnancy there is a great increase in the size of the muscle-cells (fig. 526), in addition to an increase in their number by mitosis.

3. A *mucous membrane* (fig. 527), composed of soft connective tissue containing a large number of spindle-shaped cells. It is lined by a partly



FIG. 528.—MUCOUS MEMBRANE OF CERVIX UTERI OF MONKEY. (H. M. Carleton.)
From a preparation by Thomas Marsland. $\times 45$.

Note the cervical glands, more complex and larger than those of the body.

ciliated epithelium and contains long, simple, tubular glands, which take a curved or convoluted course in passing through the membrane (fig. 527). Their epithelium is continuous with that which covers the inner surface of the mucous membrane and is ciliated for some distance within the glands. Between the latter, and pervading the stroma, is a well-defined network of reticular fibres. In the cervix the mucous membrane is marked by longitudinal and oblique ridges ; the glands are shorter but more complex than those of the body of the uterus, and are lined by columnar mucus-secreting cells (fig. 528). The glands often contain concretions known as *Nabothian ova*. Near the os uteri the epithelium becomes non-ciliated columnar ; at the margin of the os uteri this passes into a stratified epithelium which overlies vascular papillæ of the corium. The mucous membrane has many and large blood-vessels ; it also contains a considerable number of lymphatics.

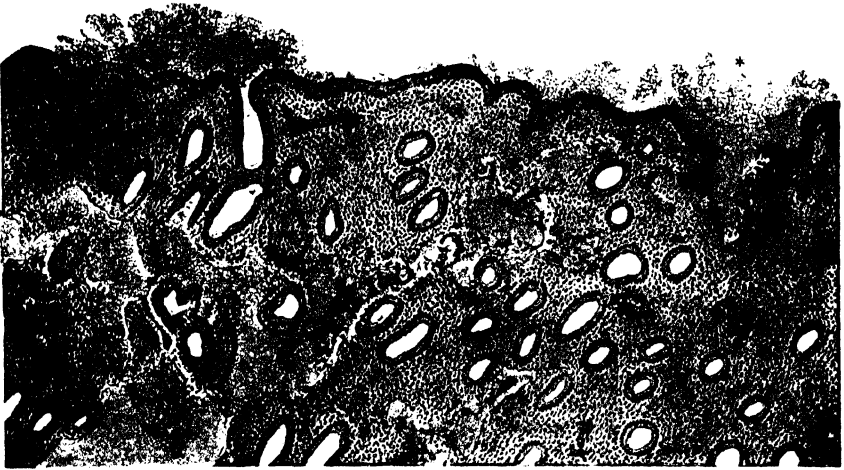


FIG. 529.—SECTION OF MUCOUS MEMBRANE OF HUMAN UTERUS DURING MENSTRUATION, SHOWING MASSES OF BLOOD ESCAPED FROM RUPTURED CAPILLARIES INTO THE INTER-GLANDULAR STROMA; AT ONE PLACE (*) THE BLOOD HAS BROKEN THROUGH THE SURFACE EPITHELIUM. (Sellheim.)

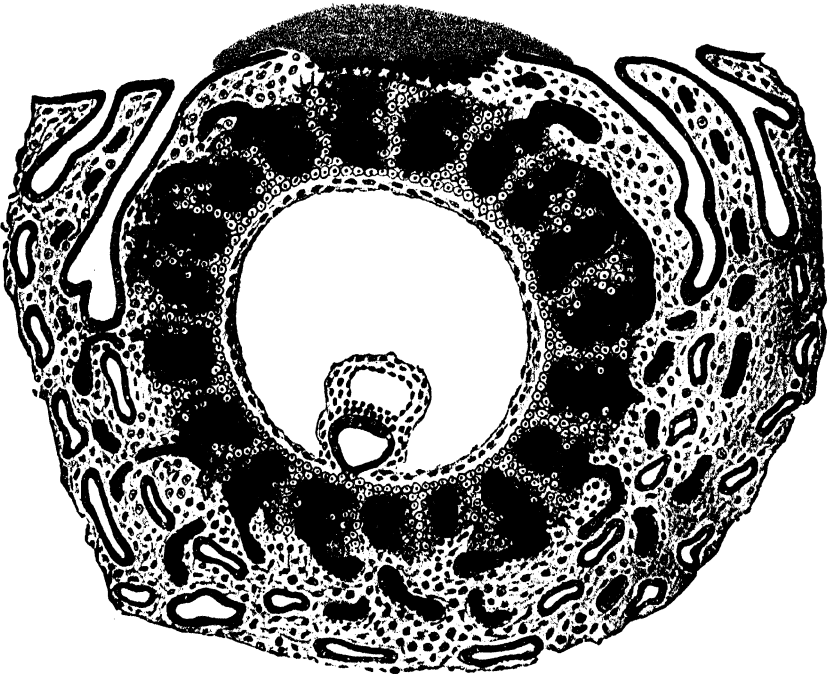


FIG. 530.—DIAGRAM TO ILLUSTRATE THE EMBEDDING OF THE OVUM IN THE DECIDUA AND THE FIRST FORMATION OF THE FETAL VILLI IN THE FORM OF A SYNCYTIAL TROPHOBLAST (DERIVED FROM THE OUTER LAYER OF THE EMBRYO) WHICH IS INVADING SINUS-LIKE BLOOD-SPACES IN THE DECIDUA. (T. H. Bryce.)

In most mammals the uterus of which is composed of two cornua the arrangement of the muscular tissue is simpler than in the human uterus (which was originally double in the embryo and has been formed by the fusion of two such tubes).

Changes accompanying menstruation.—At the commencement of each menstrual period the mucous membrane of the uterus becomes thickened and extremely congested with blood. The spiral disposition of the glands becomes greatly accentuated. Eventually the blood-vessels near the surface rupture and the superficial part of the membrane becomes disintegrated and thrown off (fig. 529). These changes are accompanied by a considerable

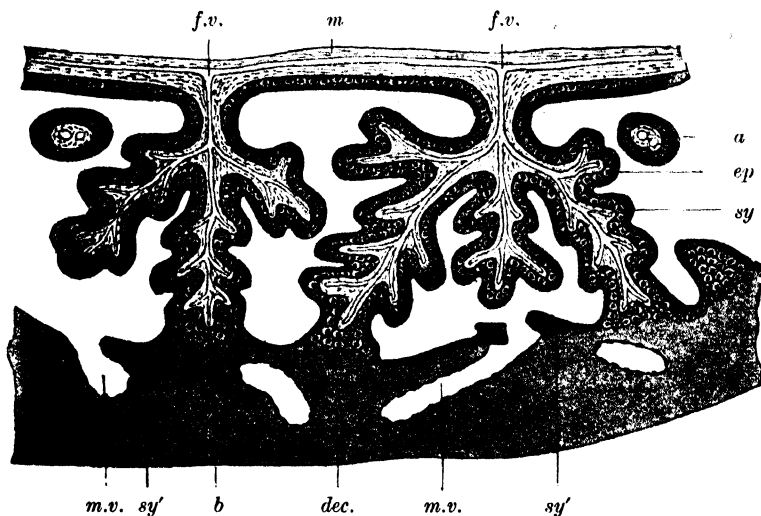


FIG. 531.—DIAGRAM OF A FURTHER STAGE IN THE FORMATION OF THE PLACENTA, SHOWING THE FETAL VILLI WITHIN THE BLOODSPACES OF THE PLACENTA AND PARTLY ATTACHED TO THE DECIDUAL WALL. (T. H. Bryce.)

The villi are now occupied by a core of vascular mesoderm. They are covered by a syncytium (continued on to the decidua, *dec.*), within which is a layer of epithelium-cells; *f.v.*, fetal vessels; *m.v.*, maternal vessels; *m*, chorion; *a*, a villus cut across; *b*, attachment of a villus; *sy*, syncytial covering to villi continued at *sy'* on to decidua; *ep*, epithelial layer under syncytium.

escape of blood into the cavity of the uterus and thence into the vagina. The return to the normal condition then begins and the regeneration from the uterine glands of the disintegrated membrane proceeds rapidly. The mechanism of menstrual hæmorrhage is peculiar. It would seem (Bartelmez, 1933) that a pronounced vaso-constriction of the uterine arteries follows the period of bleeding. It is known that these arteries exhibit peculiar longitudinal strands of muscle fibres, lying just below the intima and one-sided (*i.e.*, not continuous) in position. Contraction of these strands would tend to close the lumen of the vessels and initiate thereby the cessation of hæmorrhage at the end of both menstruation and parturition.

Should pregnancy supervene, the process of renewal results at certain parts in the formation of a greatly thickened mucous membrane, with long

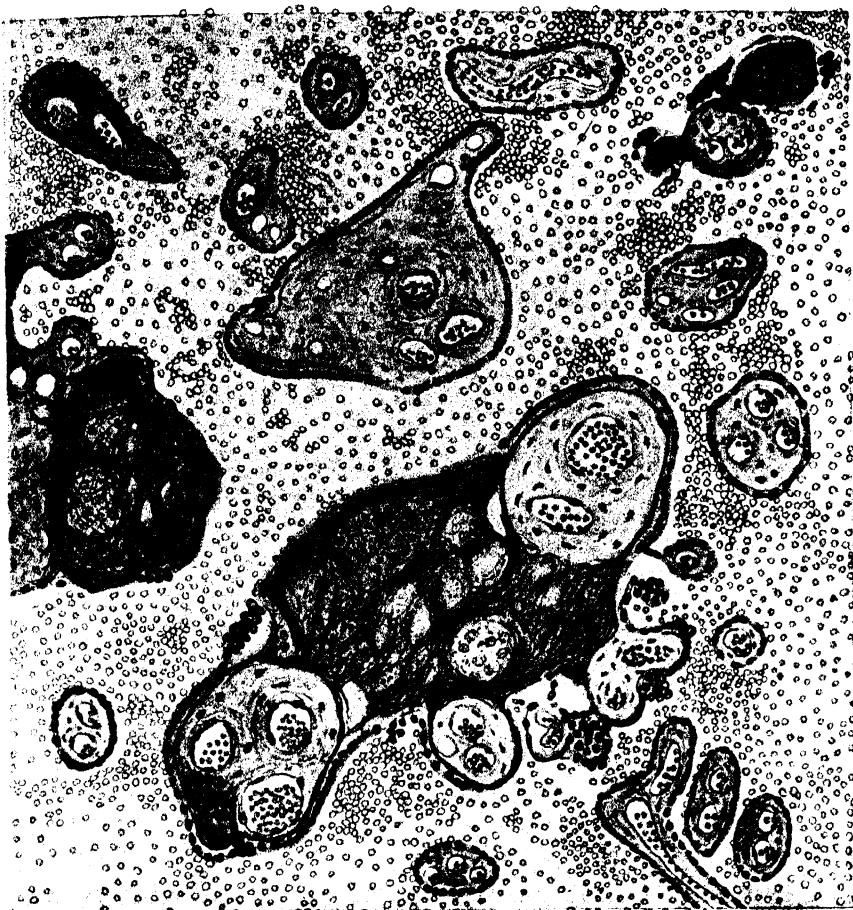


FIG. 532.—SECTION OF A PLACENTA AT FULL TIME. (T. H. Bryce.) From a preparation by J. H. Teacher.

One or two of the villi show a fibrous change. For the sake of distinction the fetal blood-corpuscles are represented as solid dots, the maternal as circles.

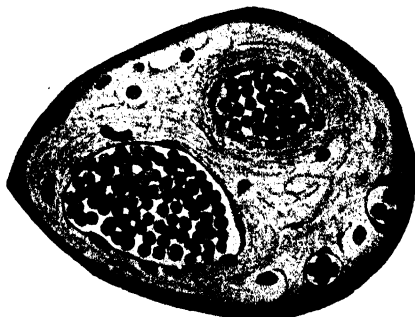


FIG. 533.—SECTION OF A VILLUS FROM A PLACENTA AT THE SEVENTH MONTH. Highly magnified. (T. H. Bryce.)

convoluted glands: this is known as the *decidua*. The muscular layer also becomes enormously hypertrophied during pregnancy; the hypertrophy is largely due to enlargement of the individual muscle-cells.

Senility.—After the menopause the endometrium atrophies, becoming reduced to a thin layer while its glands tend to form small cysts.

Structure of the placenta.—When the developing ovum reaches the uterus it becomes embedded in the thickened mucous membrane (*decidua*) to which it attaches itself firmly by means of its outer layer or *chorion*, processes of which penetrate into the *decidua*. The *chorion* and its processes are covered by a thick syncytium termed the *trophoblast*; this burrows its way into the uterine mucous membrane and gives off villus-like branching processes—*chorionic villi*—which enter large vascular sinuses in the *decidua*, where they become bathed with arterial maternal blood (fig. 530). In the meantime, tissue conveying blood-vessels has grown into the *chorionic villi* from the mesoderm of the *fœtus* bringing to them *fœtal* blood by way of the umbilical arteries. Later the original epithelial covering of the villi becomes attenuated and only a thin syncytial layer of cells separates the tissue of the villus containing *fœtal* capillaries from the maternal blood in the sinuses. Some of the villi remain hanging freely into the sinuses, others are attached to their wall or to fibrous septa and trabeculae which extend across the sinuses and serve partially to separate these into loculi (fig. 531). The maternal blood is conveyed to the sinuses of the *decidua* by small spiral arteries and is taken away by corresponding veins.

A section across the discharged placenta or afterbirth shows it to be bounded on the *fœtal* side by the *chorion*, covered by the smooth *amnion*, and on the maternal side by the thin and somewhat uneven detached part of the *decidua*—a separation having occurred in the substance of the *decidua* when the placenta becomes detached from the uterus. Between these two boundaries is a spongy mass which, in sections examined under the microscope, appears to be formed (fig. 532) of a continuous blood-space in which an enormous number of *fœtal* villi and fibrous trabeculae of varying thickness are seen, cut in various directions. Each villus (fig. 533) is composed of jelly-like connective tissue covered by a syncytial layer of epithelium. Within the larger villi arterioles and venules are seen and, in some, capillaries as well; within the smaller, only capillaries. Some villi are observed which appear to be undergoing a fibrous change (fig. 532).

THE CLITORIS, VAGINA, AND URETHRA.

The **clitoris** is similar in structure to the penis, being mainly composed of erectile or cavernous tissue arranged in structures corresponding generally with the *corpora cavernosa* and *corpus spongiosum* but much less developed. There are also two oval masses of erectile tissue, one on each side of the vaginal orifice, as well as an intermediate collection of plexiform veins which join these masses with the *corpus spongiosum*. The clitoris is not traversed by the urethra as in the male organ.

The **vagina** is lined by a mucous membrane furnished with a low stratified *epithelium* (figs. 534 and 535) with broad papillary elevations. Outside the epithelium is the *corium* composed of a very vascular, dense, connective tissue. There are no glands in the mucous membrane. Outside the *corium* is a well-marked *muscular coat* formed of plain muscle, the fibres having mainly a longitudinal direction. They are continued from the fibres of the uterus. Outside the muscular coat is a *fibrous layer*.

Bartholin's glands, which correspond with Cowper's glands in the male, lie on each side of the vagina near its upper end. Their ducts open into diverticula at the side of the orifice of the vagina. Bartholin's glands are of the compound racemose type, with mucous alveoli, lined with clear columnar cells.

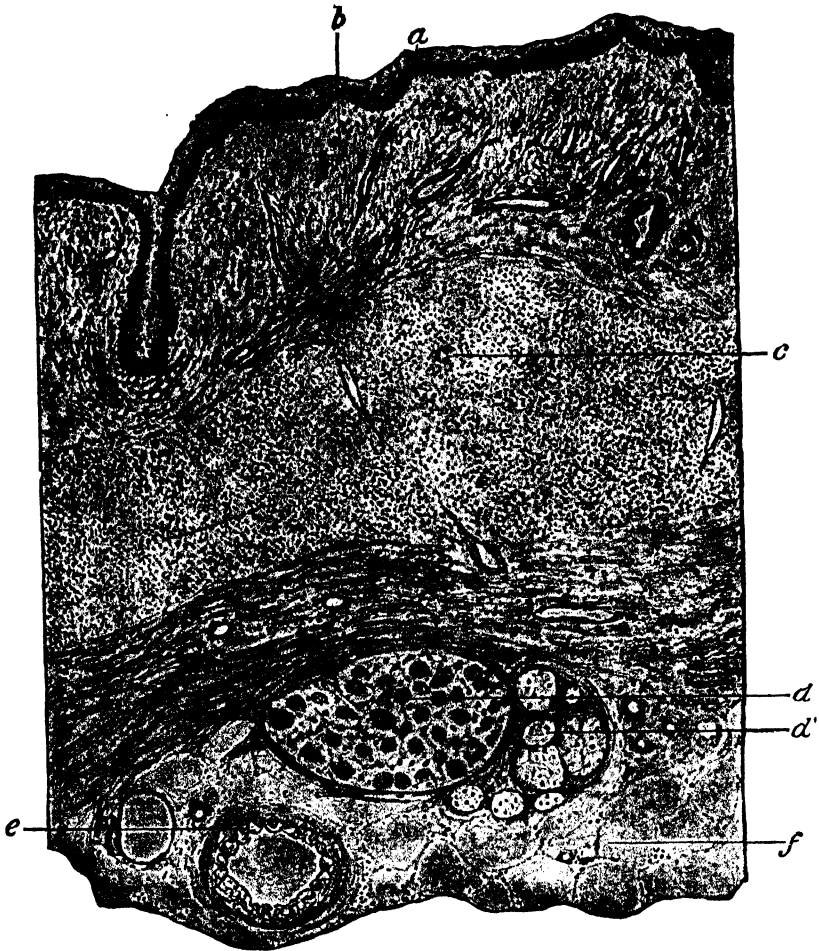


FIG. 534.—SECTION OF VAGINA OF MONKEY. (Marshall.)

a, stratified epithelium; *b*, corium of mucous membrane; *c*, muscular layer, the fibres cut across; *d*, a small ganglion; *d'*, nerve bundles; *e*, a small artery; *f*, fat-cells.

In rodents (*e.g.*, mouse, rat, guinea-pig) the epithelium of the vagina furnishes unmistakable indications of the commencement and progress of œstrus. If a scraping from the internal surface is made upon a slide and stained, little is seen in the an-œstral (di-œstral) condition beyond a few scaly epithelium cells and leucocytes. With the commencement of œstrus (first stage) the leucocytes disappear and a large number of squamous cells, some without nuclei, others with small nuclei, are seen. A little later (second stage) the fluid from the vagina is crowded with large

rounded cells with conspicuous nuclei which, as well as the cytoplasm, stain deeply. There are still a few squamous cells but usually no leucocytes. In the third stage of oestrus, the large rounded cells are still present but less numerous, and there are a few scaly cells, but the secretion is full of polymorph leucocytes which also invade the epithelium cells, some of which are crowded with them. The fourth and last stage resembles the third except that there are generally many red-cells mingled with the leucocytes. After this the secretion gradually reassumes the an-oestral condition. The whole series of changes occupies in the guinea-pig from fifteen to twenty days.

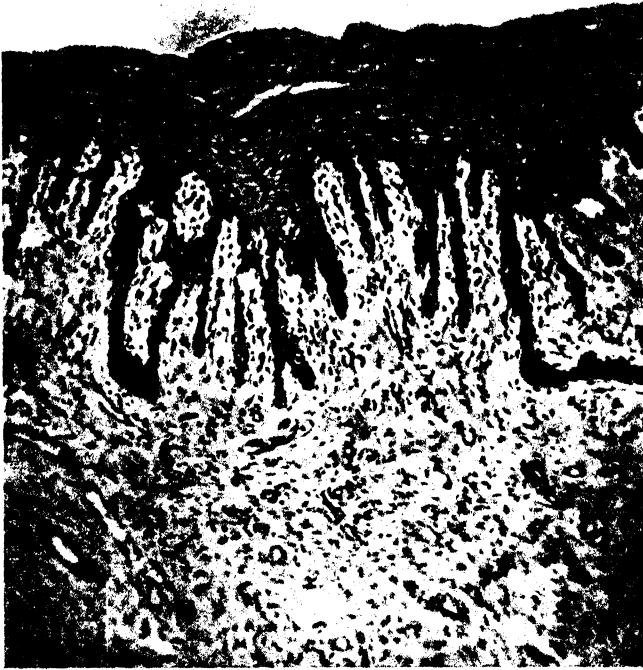


FIG. 535.—SECTION OF VAGINA OF MONKEY. THE EPITHELIUM AND CORIUM ARE SHOWN. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 80$.

The **urethra** in the female runs from the bladder parallel with the anterior wall of the vagina, with the fibrous layer of which it partly blends. As in the male sex, the wall of the urethra is formed of three coats, *mucous*, *sub-mucous*, and *muscular*. The *mucous membrane* is lined throughout by stratified epithelium, except quite near the bladder where the epithelium is transitional. The *submucous coat* contains cavernous tissue, or at least a close plexus of veins. The *muscular layer* has two layers of plain muscle, an inner longitudinal and an outer circular; there are also a few longitudinal striated muscle-fibres, chiefly confined to the anterior aspect of the tube.

Numerous small acinous glands, similar to those of the prostate in the male, open on to the mucous membrane.

LESSON XXXIX.

THE SPINAL CORD.

1. EXAMINE sections of the spinal cord from the cervical, dorsal, and lumbar regions. If the human spinal cord cannot be obtained sufficiently fresh, that of a dog, cat, rabbit, or monkey may be used. It is to be hardened by suspending it immediately after removal from the body in a tall jar of 5 per cent. formol. After a week it may be transferred to alcohol. Sections are made either by the paraffin or celloidin method: the former is preferable for small cords. Paraffin sections may be stained by Nissl's method, which brings to view the nerve-cells and also stains the axis-cylinders of the nerve-fibres. If it is desired to stain by the Weigert-Pal method, which colours the myelin-sheaths of the nerve-fibres, the cord should be first fixed in 5 per cent. formol as above. (For the details of staining, see Appendix.)

Note the relative extent of the grey as compared with the white matter in the different regions of the cord.

Sketch a section from each region under a low power. Sketch also a small portion of the white substance, two or three nerve-cells, and the central canal with its lining epithelium and surrounding neuroglia under the high power.

2. The early development of the spinal cord may be studied in sections of chick embryos at various ages.

GENERAL STRUCTURE OF THE SPINAL CORD.

The **spinal cord** is composed of grey matter in the centre and of white matter externally. It is invested by three membranes, termed respectively *pia mater*, *arachnoid*, and *dura mater* (fig. 536). The *pia mater* is everywhere in contact with the surface of the cord; by its means the blood-vessels are distributed to the organ. The *pia mater* is in fact largely formed of small arteries and veins supplying the nervous substance, to which it is closely bound down by their capillary branches. Covering its outer surface is a layer of endothelium cells.

Next to the *pia mater* and separated from it by a considerable space, termed the subarachnoid space, is the arachnoid membrane. In some parts the arachnoid lies close to the *dura mater*; in others it is separated from it by a space containing fluid, known as the subdural space. The fluid in these spaces and in the corresponding spaces around the brain is known as the cerebro-spinal fluid (see p. 531). The arachnoid is a non-vascular areolar structure, very delicate in texture and covered with endothelium cells.

The *dura mater*, which immediately lines the vertebral canal, is a strong fibrous membrane. It is covered on its inner surface with a continuous layer of endothelium. All three membranes are continued into the connective-tissue sheaths of the issuing spinal nerves.

At the middle of the ventral (anterior) and dorsal (posterior) surfaces the pia mater dips into the substance of the cord in the *ventral* and *dorsal*

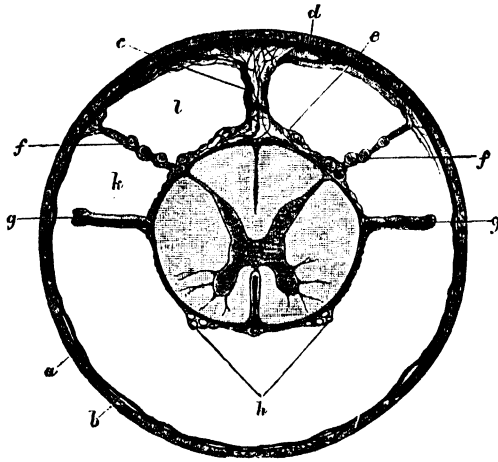


FIG. 536.—SECTION OF THE SPINAL CORD WITHIN ITS MEMBRANES. (Key and Retzius.)
a, dura mater; b, arachnoid; c, septum of arachnoid; d, e, trabeculae of arachnoid; f, bundles of dorsal root; g, ligamentum denticulatum; h, bundles of ventral root; k, l, subarachnoid space.

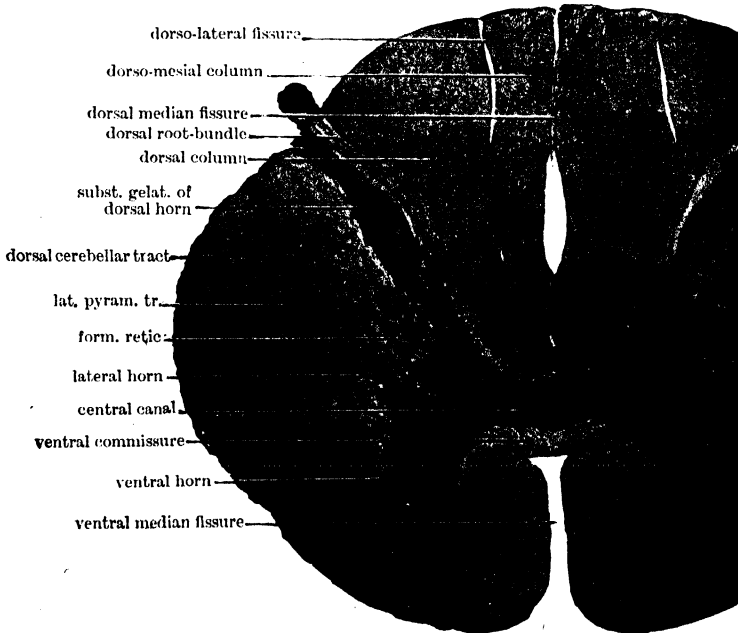


FIG. 537.—SECTION OF HUMAN SPINAL CORD FROM UPPER CERVICAL REGION.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 8$. Photograph.

median fissures, so as to divide it almost completely into two lateral halves (fig. 537). These are, however, united by an isthmus or bridge, composed

ventrally of transversely crossing white fibres, the *white commissure*, dorsally of grey matter, the *grey commissure*; in the middle of the latter is a minute canal lined by ciliated epithelium, known as the *central canal*.

Each lateral half of the spinal cord contains a crescent of grey matter, joined to the corresponding crescent of the opposite side by the grey commissure. Of the two horns of the crescent the dorsal is the narrower and comes near the surface of the cord; close to it the bundles of the dorsal nerve-roots enter the cord. The bundles of the ventral nerve-roots emerge from the corresponding horn.

According to Ingbert about 1,300,000 nerve-fibres enter the cord by the dorsal roots, and about one-third that number leave it by the ventral roots.

The dorsal root-fibres are derived from the cells of the spinal ganglia, which lie outside the cord; the ventral root-fibres from cells within the grey matter, chiefly

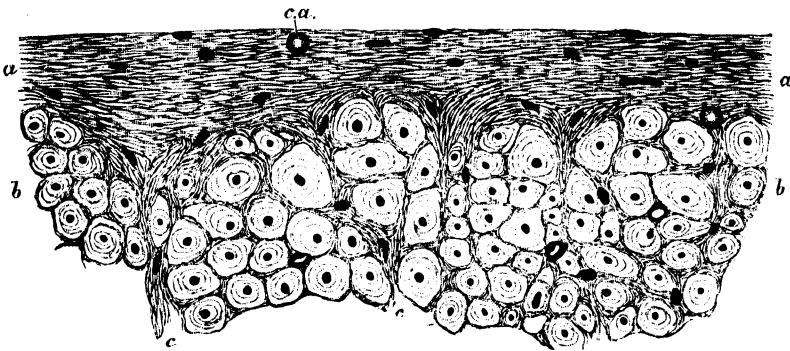


FIG. 538.—A SMALL PORTION OF A TRANSVERSE SECTION OF THE HUMAN SPINAL CORD IN THE REGION OF THE LATERAL COLUMN, TO SHOW THE SUPERFICIAL NEUROGLIA. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Highly magnified.

a, *a*, superficial neuroglia; *b*, *b*, transverse section of part of the lateral column of the cord, in which the dark points are the axis-cylinders, and the clear areas the myelin sheaths of the nerve-fibres. The superficial neuroglia is seen to exhibit the appearance of a fine network, in which numerous nuclei and one or two corpora amylacea (*c.a.*) are embedded.

from cells in the ventral horn, but also from cells in the middle and dorsal parts of the grey matter and (especially in the thoracic region) from cells in the intermedio-lateral cell-column (lateral horn). The latter probably furnish the autonomic (sympathetic) fibres of the ventral roots, while the cells of the ventral horn furnish the fibres which are distributed to the voluntary muscles.

The **white matter** of each half of the cord is subdivided by the approach of the dorsal horn to the surface into two unequal columns—*ventro-lateral* and *dorsal*. A distinction is sometimes drawn between ventral and lateral portions of the ventro-lateral column, although there is no line of demarcation between them. In the upper part of the cord the dorsal column is subdivided by a septum of connective tissue into two—the *dorsal-mesial column* (*funiculus gracilis*), and the *dorso-lateral column* (*funiculus cuneatus*).

The white matter is composed of longitudinally coursing, myelinate nerve-fibres, which in sections stained with toluidin-blue appear as clear circular areas with a stained dot, the axis-cylinder, near the middle (fig. 538), while in sections stained by the Weigert-Pal method they appear as dark

circles with a clear centre. The nerve-fibres vary in size in different parts ; on the whole those nearest to the surface of the cord are larger than those

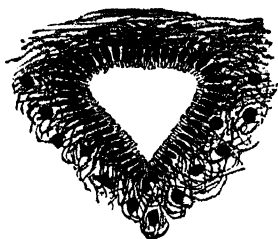


FIG. 539.—SECTION OF THE CENTRAL CANAL OF THE SPINAL CORD OF A CHILD, SHOWING ITS CILIATED EPITHELIUM AND THE SURROUNDING CENTRAL NEUROGLIA. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Moderately magnified.

nearest to the grey matter ; but there is a bundle of very small fibres opposite the tip of the posterior horn.

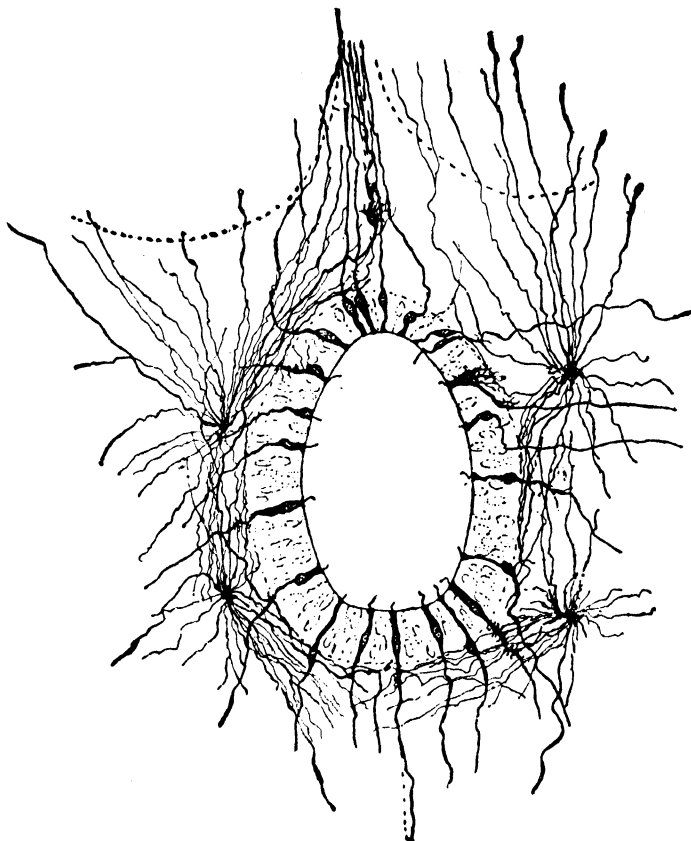


FIG. 540.—EPENDYMA AND NEUROGLIA-CELLS AROUND CENTRAL CANAL OF CORD. (Lenhossék.) Golgi method.

The myelinate fibres are supported by *neuroglia*, composed of neuroglia-cells and fibres. The neuroglia is accumulated in greater amount at the

surface of the cord underneath the pia mater, and particularly, in the human cord, near the entrance of the dorsal roots (fig. 538) ; and it extends into the grey matter, in which it is especially abundant in the *substantia gelatinosa* at the apex of the dorsal horn and around the central canal.

The **grey matter**, besides neuroglia, contains an interlacement of nerve-fibres and the arborisations of the dendrons of the nerve-cells, the nucleated bodies of which are embedded in it.

The **central canal** of the spinal cord, which is occupied by cerebro-spinal fluid, is continued above the cord into the fourth ventricle of the brain.

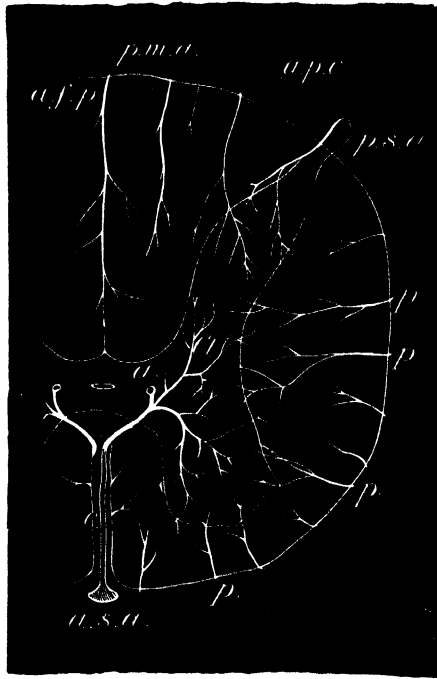


FIG. 541.—DIAGRAM SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF ARTERIES TO THE WHITE AND GREY MATTER OF THE CORD. (Obersteiner.)

It is lined by columnar ciliated epithelium-cells (*ependyma*) surrounded by a quantity of neuroglia (figs. 539, 540). The cells are best seen in the spinal cord of animals and in the child ; in the human adult they have frequently become proliferated so as to block the central canal, and cilia are no longer present. In the early embryo their fixed extremities extend through the whole thickness of the cord to reach the pia mater. This condition is permanent in many of the lower vertebrata.

Blood-vessels of the spinal cord.—The blood-supply of the grey matter is derived mainly from a series of arterioles, which come off from the medially situated ventral spinal artery (fig. 541, *a.s.a.*), pass into the central median fissure, and at the bottom of this divide each into two branches (*a*), one for the grey matter of each lateral half

of the cord. In the grey matter is a very close capillary plexus which is supplied not alone by the vessels just mentioned, but also by small arterioles (*p*) which, converging from the small arteries of the pia mater, pass through the white matter and supply this as they traverse it. These arterioles join with branches of the above-mentioned ventral spinal artery and of the dorsal spinal arteries (*p.s.a.*), which run on each side along the line of the dorsal roots to form the capillary plexus. The capillary plexus of the white matter is far less dense than that of the grey matter. Its meshes are chiefly longitudinal.

The veins of the spinal cord accompany the arteries. Two longitudinal venous vessels, accompanying corresponding anastomotic arterioles, are seen, one on either side of the central canal, in most transverse sections of the cord.

CHARACTERS OF THE SPINAL CORD IN ITS SEVERAL REGIONS.

In the *cervical region* (fig. 542, A), the white matter, especially that of the lateral columns, occurs in largest proportion. The cord is compressed in the antero-posterior plane. The grey matter in the cervical enlargement is also in considerable amount, and it encroaches, especially in the upper part of the region, in the form of a network (*formatio reticularis*) upon the adjacent part of the lateral white column (fig. 537). The ventral horns are thick and the dorsal slender. The dorso-mesial column is distinctly marked off from the dorso-lateral.

In the *thoracic region* (B), the grey matter is small in amount, and both horns are slender. The whole cord is of smaller diameter than in either the cervical or lumbar region, and is almost round in section. The columns of nerve-cells known as Clarke's column and the intermedio-lateral column are well marked.

In the *lumbar region* (C), the crescents of grey matter are very thick, and the white substance, especially the lateral columns, relatively small in amount. The isthmus lies nearly in the centre of the cord, whereas in the cervical and dorsal regions it is nearer the ventral surface.

In the *sacral region* of the spinal cord from which the *sacral* and *coccygeal* nerve-roots take origin grey matter largely predominates, the crescents form thick irregular masses, and the grey isthmus is also of considerable thickness.

LESSON XL.

CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM.

THE SPINAL CORD (*continued*).

1. STUDY the tracts in the spinal cord. The conducting tracts of the spinal cord may be studied in two ways, viz. : (1) by preparing sections of embryonic cords (from the 5th to the 9th month), the sections being stained by the Weigert-Pal process ; (2) in sections from the cord of an animal in which semi-section has been performed about 15 days before the animal is killed. After removal the cord is first fixed for at least a week in 5 per cent. formol ; thin pieces taken from below and from above the level of the section are then stained by Busch's method (see Appendix).

2. Examine the grouping of cells in the cord. These are studied in sections stained by Nissl's method (see Appendix).

TRACTS OF NERVE-FIBRES IN THE WHITE COLUMNS.

The course of the nerve-tracts in the spinal cord, and in other parts of the central nervous system, can be made out by the method of Flechsig, which involves the study of sections of the developing cord ; for it is found that the formation of myelin occurs sooner in some tracts than in others, so that it is easy to make out the distinction between them. Thus, the peripheral nerves and nerve-roots become myelinated in the first half of the fifth month of foetal life. Of the tracts of the spinal cord, those of Burdach and Goll (see below) are the first to be myelinated, then the tracts of Flechsig and Gowers, all of these being afferent or centripetally conducting, while the pyramid tracts, which are efferent or centrifugally conducting, do not receive their myelin sheath until after birth.

Flechsig found that the fibres of the dorsal roots are myelinated in at least three stages, and that the dorsal-lateral tract shows a corresponding differentiation into three chief parts : the *ventral*, *middle*, and *dorsal root-zones*. Probably this differentiation corresponds with functional differences of the fibres.

Another method (that of Waller, p. 183) consists in investigating the course pursued by degeneration of the nerve-fibres in consequence of lesions produced accidentally or purposely. Those tracts in which degeneration of fibres occurs below the lesion are termed 'descending' tracts ; those in which it occurs above the lesion are termed 'ascending.' This method, when combined with the staining process devised by Marchi, is of great value, since it enables even single fibres to be traced far from their source.

Further, the cells whence the fibres of any tract arise can be identified,

after a lesion of the tract, by the chromatolysis or degeneration of Nissl-granules which nerve-cells undergo after section of their axons (see p. 184).

Tracts of the dorsal column (see figs. 546 and 547).—*Tract of Goll*.—Most of the fibres of the *dorso-mesial column* belong to a tract known as the *tract of Goll*. This consists of fibres derived from the dorsal nerve-roots of the sacral, lumbar, and lower thoracic nerves, which, after having entered the dorso-lateral columns, shift, as they ascend, towards the dorsal median fissure and form a distinct tract, marked off from the rest of the dorsal column in the



FIG. 543.—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE SITE OF DEGENERATION IN THE DORSAL COLUMN WHICH RESULTS FROM UNILATERAL SECTION OF THE DORSAL ROOTS OF THE SECOND SACRAL TO THE SIXTH LUMBAR NERVES OF THE DOG. (Singer.)

a, sixth lumbar segment; b, fourth lumbar; c, from the mid-thoracic region.



FIG. 544.—DEGENERATION FOLLOWING UNILATERAL SECTION OF THE DORSAL ROOT OF THE ELEVENTH AND TWELFTH THORACIC NERVES OF THE DOG. (Singer.)

a, at level of twelfth thoracic; b, of third thoracic; c, from mid-cervical region.

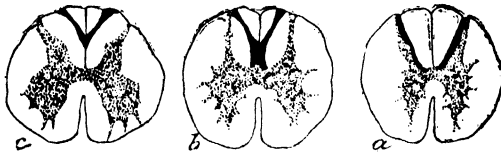


FIG. 545.—DEGENERATION FOLLOWING BILATERAL SECTIONS OF THE DORSAL ROOTS OF THE SECOND THORACIC TO FIFTH CERVICAL NERVES OF THE DOG. (Kahler.)

a, at level of first thoracic; b, at sixth cervical; c, at first cervical.

cervical region by a slight furrow and a septum of pia mater. The tract ends amongst the cells of the *nucleus gracilis* of the medulla oblongata.

2. *Tract of Burdach*.—The *dorso-lateral column* is also mainly composed of fibres of the dorsal nerve-roots, which run for a certain distance in it before entering the grey matter of the cord or of the medulla oblongata. As each mass of dorsal root-bundles enters the column close to the apex of the horn it, so to speak, pushes the root-fibres which have already entered nearer to the median fissure; hence those derived from the lowest nerve-roots are nearest that fissure (*tract of Goll*), while those derived from the highest remain near the horn (*tract of Burdach*). Many of the fibres of both tracts pass into the grey matter either immediately on entering the cord or in their

course upwards; the rest are continued into the medulla oblongata, and those of the tract of Burdach end by arborising amongst the cells of the *nucleus cuneatus*.

3. *Comma tract*.—Besides the tracts of Burdach and Goll, which are wholly composed of long 'ascending' fibres having their cells of origin in the ganglia on the dorsal roots, there are a few fibres which have a shorter 'descending' course in the dorsal columns. These are thought by some authors to arise from descending branches of the dorsal root-fibres, by others from cells in the grey matter of the cord. They form the so-called *comma tract*.

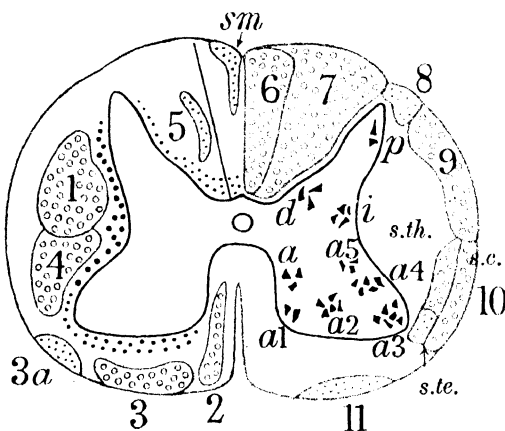


FIG. 546.—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE ASCENDING (RIGHT SIDE) AND DESCENDING (LEFT SIDE) TRACTS IN THE SPINAL CORD. ASCENDING TRACTS RED; DESCENDING TRACTS BLUE. (Re-drawn and slightly modified from E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

1, Crossed pyramid-tract; 2, direct pyramid-tract; 3, ventro-lateral descending; 3a, bundle of Helweg; 4, rubro-spinal; 5, comma; 6, dorso-mesial; 7, dorso-lateral; 8, tract of Lissauer; 9, dorsal cerebellar; 10, ventro-lateral ascending [including spino-thalamic (*s.th.*), spino-cerebellar (*s.c.*) and spino-tectal (*s.te.*)]; *sm*, septo-marginal; 11, ventral spino-thalamic; *a* to *a*⁵, groups of cells in the ventral horn; *i*, intermedio-lateral group of cell-column in the lateral part of the grey matter; *p*, cells of dorsal horn; *d*, dorsal nucleus of Stilling (cell-column of Clarke). The scattered black dots on the left side indicate the situation of 'endogenous' fibres (arising in grey matter of cord) having for the most part a short course. There are many more of these fibres near the grey matter (not indicated in the diagram).

Proprio-spinal or endogenous fibres of the dorsal column.—These comprise a few fibres (*septo-marginal*), chiefly accumulated near the median fissure (*oval bundle*) and others near the dorsal surface (*median triangular bundle*), as well as others scattered in the column; they are derived from cells in the grey matter of the cord itself, and all take a 'descending' course in the dorsal column. There are, however, some fibres which arise in the grey matter and have an 'ascending' course: these are especially numerous in the ventral part of the column.

Tracts of the ventro-lateral column: descending tracts (see figs. 546 and 547).—1. *Pyramid-tract* or *cortico-spinal tract*.—At the dorsal part of the lateral column there is a tract of moderately large 'descending' fibres running into the lateral column of the spinal cord from the opposite side of the brain, after having for the most part crossed at the decussation of the

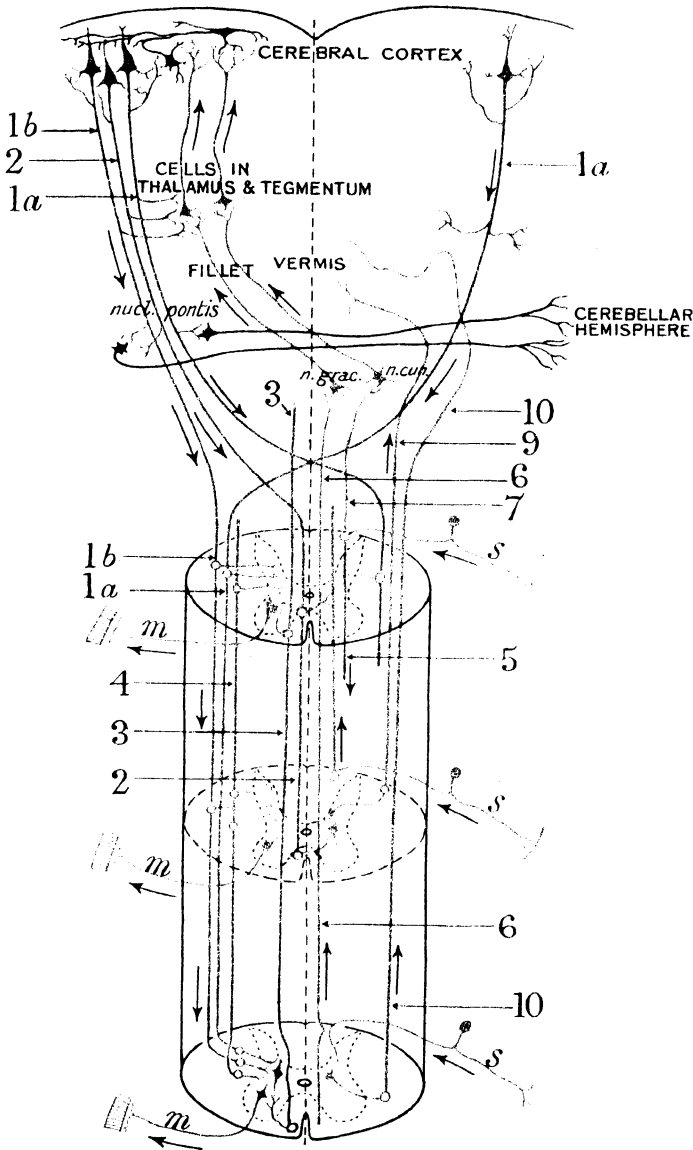


FIG. 547.—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE COURSE, ORIGIN, AND TERMINATION OF THE FIBRES OF THE PRINCIPAL TRACTS OF THE WHITE MATTER OF THE SPINAL CORD. ASCENDING TRACTS, RED; DESCENDING TRACTS, BLUE. (The numbers in this diagram refer to fibres of the tracts shown with corresponding numbers in fig. 546.) (Re-drawn from E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

Descending tracts:—1a, a crossing fibre of the lateral pyramid tract; 1b, a non-crossing fibre of the pyramid-tract passing to the lateral column of the same side; 2, a fibre of the direct pyramid-tract; 3, a fibre of the ventro-lateral descending tract; 4, a fibre of the rubro-spinal tract; 5, fibres of the comma tract. *Ascending tracts*:—6, a fibre of the dorso-mesial tract; 7, a fibre of the dorso-lateral tract; 9, one belonging to the dorsal cerebellar; 10, a fibre of the ascending ventro-lateral tract. Also, m, motor nerve-fibres; s, sensory (afferent) nerve-fibres; n.grac., a cell of nucleus gracilis; n.cun., a cell of nucleus cuneatus; nucl. pontis, cells of nucleus of pons. The arrows indicate the direction of the nerve-impulses.

pyramids of the medulla oblongata (the fibres of the *crossed lateral pyramid-tract*). Intermingled with the fibres of the crossed pyramid-tract in the lateral column are a few fibres of the pyramid which have not crossed in the medulla oblongata, and are therefore derived from the cerebral cortex of the same side—the *uncrossed lateral pyramid-fibres*. Certain large fibres, which lie in the ventral column next to the median fissure in the human subject, also belong to a portion of the same tract which has not undergone decussation, and are known as the fibres of the *direct pyramid-tract*. The direct pyramid-tract is only found in man and the anthropoid apes and varies considerably in extent. It is always most distinct in the cervical region, becoming gradually lost as it is traced down.

The pyramid-tracts are composed of 'descending' fibres, which have their cells of origin in the cerebral cortex (precentral and paracentral gyri) and end by arborisations in the grey matter at the base of the dorsal horn of the spinal cord. In some mammals (rat, mouse, guinea-pig, sheep, kangaroo, squirrel, etc.) the pyramid-tracts are situated in the dorsal columns of the cord, in others, including the monkey, dog, cat, and rabbit, they run wholly in the lateral columns. The pyramid-tracts are very small in the lower mammals, and are not found at all in vertebrates below this group.

It has been calculated that there are about 80,000 fibres of the pyramid-tract in each half of the human cord. The pyramid-tracts are generally regarded as the paths along which volitional impulses are conveyed from the cerebral cortex to the spinal cord. But experiments have shown that they are not the only cortico-spinal paths nor even the most important in many mammals, for the paralysis which results from their section is soon recovered from in most cases, whereas that resulting from section of the ventral column and adjacent part of the lateral column may be marked and permanent in animals, although such section in man may produce no motor paralysis. It appears to be the finer and more delicate movements which are permanently lost when the pyramid-tract is affected by disease in man.

2. *Tract of Loewenthal*.—Besides the pyramid-tracts there are four other 'descending' tracts of fibres in the ventro-lateral column. One of these, the *ventro-lateral descending tract* or *tract of Loewenthal*, lies on the side of the ventral median fissure, and extends along the margin of the cord in the 'root' zone, even reaching the ventral part of the lateral column. These fibres are continued down, chiefly from the *dorsal longitudinal bundle* of the medulla oblongata and pons (*bulbo-spinal* and *ponto-spinal fibres*), and from the nucleus of the vestibular nerve: partly from other sources which will be referred to later. They end by arborisations in the ventral horn. Similar arborisations pass from the dorsal longitudinal bundle to the nuclei of the motor cranial nerves. This tract is mainly uncrossed.

3. *Rubro-spinal tract*.—Another 'descending' tract in the ventro-lateral column lies just in front of the crossed pyramid-tract; this is the *rubro-spinal tract*. Its fibres end by arborising in the grey matter of the middle of the crescent; the situation of its cells of origin is the red nucleus of the tegmentum on the opposite side of the mid-brain (p. 495). This tract is also known as *Monakow's bundle*. Some of its fibres may be derived from cells in the reticular formation of the pons and medulla oblongata.

4. *Tecto-spinal fibres*.—Intermingled with the fibres of the rubro-spinal tract (but far fewer in number in man) are fibres derived from the quadrigeminal bodies of the opposite side. These fibres form a part of the *tectospinal tract*. Another part of this tract, the *ventral longitudinal bundle*, passes down the ventral column of the cord along with the fibres of the tract of Loewenthal.

5. *Olivo-spinal tract*.—This is a small triangular group of 'descending' fibres traceable from the neighbourhood of the olive in the medulla oblongata, and passing down the cervical cord in the ventral part of the lateral column (fig. 546, 3a); the exact origin and destination of its fibres are unknown. It is also known as the *bundle of Helweg*.

Ascending tracts of the ventro-lateral column.—1. *Tract of Flechsig*.—This is a well-marked tract, which is, however, only distinct in the cervical and dorsal regions, where it lies external to the crossed pyramid-tract. It consists of large fibres derived from the cells of Clarke's column (fig. 546) which pass into the lower or posterior part of the cerebellar vermis by the inferior peduncle of the same side (*dorsal spino-cerebellar tract*; *direct cerebellar tract*, fig. 542; also figs. 546 and 547).

2. *Tract of Gowers, ventro-lateral ascending tract*.—This is situated ventrally to the tract of Flechsig and the lateral crossed pyramid-tract in the lumbar region; while in the thoracic and cervical regions it forms a narrow band of fibres curving round close to the lateral surface of the cord, and extending into the ventral column (figs. 546 and 547). Its fibres are partly intermingled with those of the ventro-lateral descending tract. Most of the fibres of the tract of Gowers are connected with the upper or anterior part of the vermis of the cerebellum. They constitute the *ventral spino-cerebellar tract*, which passes to the cerebellum along with the superior cerebellar peduncle. Both in the cord and medulla oblongata it gives off fibres to join the tract of Flechsig and to pass in this to the cerebellum by the inferior peduncle. According to some authors the tract of Gowers gives off a few fibres to enter the opposite cerebellar hemisphere by the middle peduncle.

Some of the fibres included within the area of Gowers' tract are continued up to the corpora quadrigemina as the *spino-tectal tract*. Others pass into the tegmentum of the crus cerebri, where they can be traced as far as the lower part of the thalamus (*spino-thalamic tract*).

Most of the fibres of Gowers' tract take origin from the cells of Clarke's column, of the same side of the cord, especially from its lower part. This is the case at least with the cerebellar fibres. Both the tectal and thalamic fibres arise from cells situated in the middle, dorsal and possibly ventral parts of the grey matter, partly on the same but chiefly on the opposite side of the cord.

3. *Tract of Lissauer*.—Lastly, there is another small tract of fibres which undergoes degeneration above the point of section of the cord. This is the *marginal bundle* of Lissauer (fig. 546). It is formed by fine fibres from the posterior roots. Many of these fibres are amyelinate. They have been thought to be derived from the small, darkly staining cells of the spinal ganglia (p. 180), or from cells in the dorsal grey matter of the cord.

Other portions of the ventro-lateral columns near the grey matter which

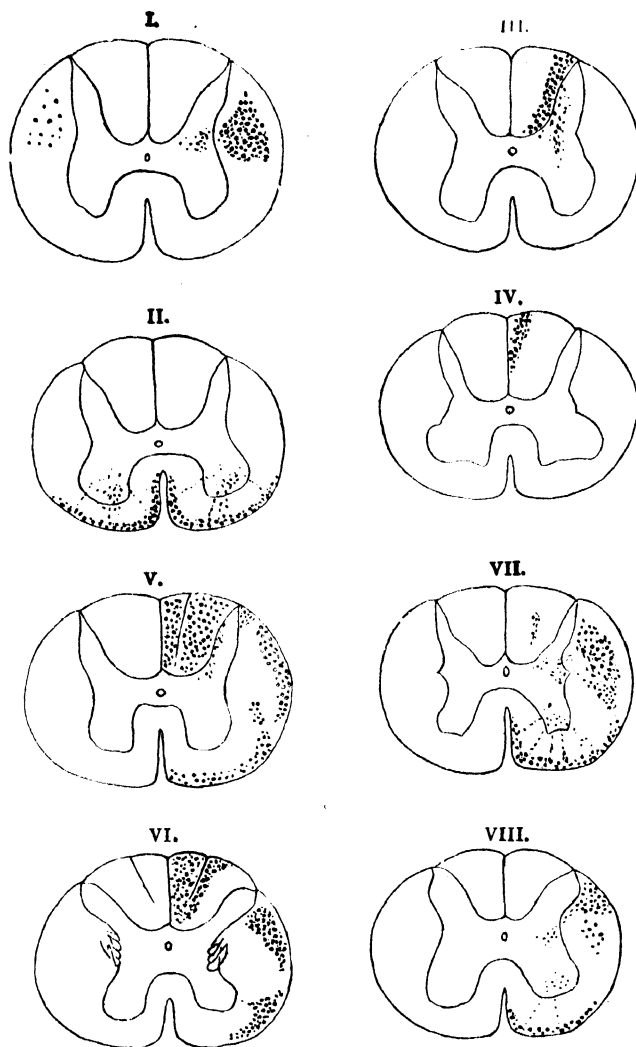


FIG. 548.—DIAGRAM OF SECTIONS OF THE SPINAL CORD OF THE MONKEY SHOWING THE POSITION OF DEGENERATED TRACTS OF NERVE-FIBRES AFTER SPECIFIC LESIONS OF THE CORD ITSELF, OF AFFERENT NERVE-ROOTS AND OF THE PRECENTRAL REGION OF THE CEREBRAL CORTEX. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

The degenerations are shown by the method of Marchi. The left side of the cord is at the reader's left.

- I. Degenerations resulting from extirpation of the precentral larea of the cortex of the left cerebral hemisphere. In man there would be some degenerated fibres in the left ventral column also, close to the ventral fissure.
- II. Degenerations produced by section of the dorsal longitudinal bundles in the upper part of the medulla oblongata.
- III. and IV. Result of section of dorsal roots of the first, second, and third lumbar nerves on the right side. Section III. is from the segment of cord between the last thoracic and first lumbar roots; Section IV., from the same cord in the cervical region.
- V. to VIII. Degenerations resulting from (right) lateral section of the cord in the upper thoracic region. V. is taken a short distance above the level of the section; VI., higher up the cord (cervical region); VII., a little below the level of section VIII., lumbar region.

are differentiated by the method of Flechsig are probably short tracts uniting adjacent portions of the grey matter of the cord.

Proprio-spinal or endogenous fibres of the ventro-lateral column.—Sherrington has shown that in the dog the lateral column in the thoracic region of the cord contains a certain number of long fibres which take origin in the cervical, thoracic and upper lumbar segments and are traceable down to the lumbo-sacral enlargement. These must serve to convey excito-reflex impulses from the upper to the lower parts of the body. Probably similar fibres arise all along the cord from the cells of the lateral column and pass upwards as well as downwards.

A tract of endogenous fibres has been observed in man close to the ventral median fissure lying amongst the fibres of the direct pyramid-tract. This is the *ventral sulco-marginal tract* of P. Marie.

The ventro-lateral column contains also many endogenous fibres, both ascending and descending, derived from cells in the grey matter of the cord, which have only a short course, serving to connect adjacent segments.

GROUPS OF CELLS IN GREY MATTER OF CORD.

The nerve-cells which are scattered through the grey matter are in part disposed in definite groups. Thus there are several groups of large multipolar nerve-cells in the ventral horn in the cervical and lumbar enlargements (fig. 549), although in other regions of the cord the number of groups in this situation is reduced to two, a mesial and a lateral. The larger groups in the enlargements correspond with segments of the limb (Van Gehuchten); thus there appear to be groups associated with foot, leg, and thigh, and with hand, arm, and shoulder movements respectively. The groups from which the motor nerves to the shoulder and arm muscles arise appear in somewhat higher segments of the cervical cord than those belonging to the hand muscles. The same holds good, *mutatis mutandis*, for the lumbar cord in relation to the leg and foot. Further, the larger groups show subdivisions which may be related to particular movements, *i.e.*, to particular groups of muscles. In the case of the diaphragm there is a special cell-group or cell-column in each side in the ventral horn of the cervical cord; from these cells the fibres of the phrenic nerve arise, so that in this case a cell-group is set apart for a special muscle.

The axis-cylinder processes of the ventral horn-cells mostly pass out into the corresponding ventral nerve-roots (fig. 547, *m*), but a few send their axons to the ventral or lateral columns of the opposite side through the white commissure, or to the ventral or lateral columns of the same side. It is noteworthy that in birds a few cells of the ventral horn send their axons into the dorsal roots. A well-marked group of large nerve-cells, best marked in the thoracic region, lies at the base of the dorsal horn, the *dorsal nucleus of Stilling* or *Clarke's column*, fig. 546, *d*). The cells of Clarke's column send their axis-cylinder processes into the cerebellar tracts. If these tracts are cut experimentally, the cells of Clarke's column on the same side below the section undergo Nissl degeneration and eventually atrophy, but the

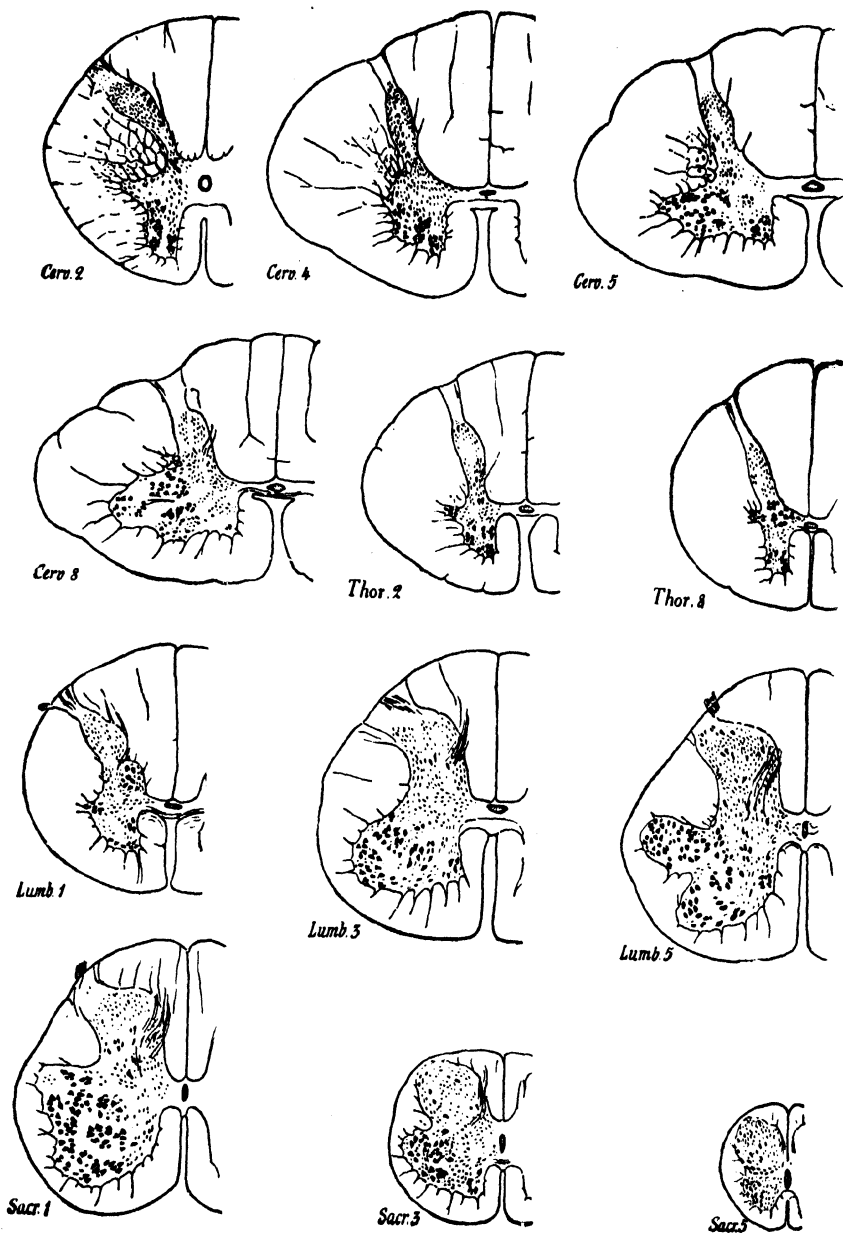


FIG. 549.—DIAGRAM OF SECTIONS OF HUMAN SPINAL CORD AT DIFFERENT LEVELS.
(Edinger.)

The names refer to the origin of the corresponding nerve-roots. The relative shape and size of the cord and grey matter, the relative amounts of grey and white matter, and the size and position of the principal cell-groups are shown.

degeneration does not affect all the cells unless both the tract of Flechsig and the tract of Gowers are severed (Ninian Bruce). These are a few small cells with short axons in Clarke's column which do not give rise to fibres of either of these long tracts.

Another group is seen on the outer side of the grey matter ; this forms the *lateral cell-column*, or *intermedio-lateral column* (fig. 546, *i*). This is most distinct in the thoracic region as far up as the second thoracic segment. The axons from its cells for the most part leave the cord along with the ventral

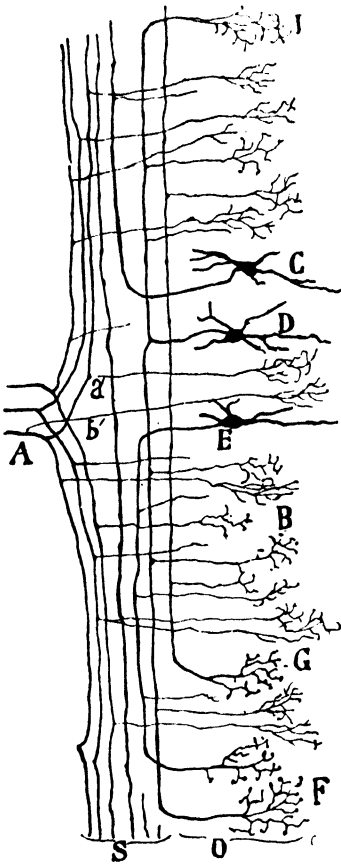


Fig. 550.—FROM LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF CORD OF CHICK EMBRYO, SHOWING ENTERING DORSAL ROOT-FIBRES AND THE PASSAGE OF COLLATERALS FROM THEM INTO THE GREY MATTER. ALSO THREE CELLS OF THE DORSAL HORN SENDING THEIR AXONS INTO THE WHITE MATTER. (R. y Cajal.)

A, entering root-fibres; S, dorsal white column;
O, grey matter; C, D, E, cells of dorsal horn;
B, F, G, I, arborisation of collaterals in grey
matter.

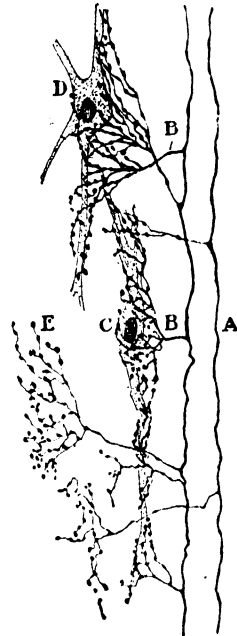


FIG. 551.—ARBORISATION OF COLLATERALS FROM THE DORSAL ROOT-FIBRES AROUND CELLS OF THE DORSAL HORN OF GREY MATTER. (R. y Cajal.)

A, fibres of dorsal column derived from dorsal root ;
B, collaterals ; C, D, nerve-cells in grey matter
surrounded by the arborisations of the colla-
terals ; E, an arborisation shown separately.

roots, and probably furnish the outgoing visceral and vascular fibres (preganglionic autonomic fibres of Langley, see p. 165). Another group (*middle cell-column*) lies in the middle of the crescent (fig. 542, *e*). Cells are very numerous in the dorsal horn but are not collected into definite groups.

Those of the substantia gelatinosa of Rolando send their nerve-fibre processes partly into the lateral, partly into the dorsal columns.

The cells which send their axons into the adjacent parts of the white columns but not into any special tract are sometimes termed the 'cells of the white columns.'

CONNEXION OF THE NERVE-ROOTS WITH THE SPINAL CORD.

The *ventral* or *anterior roots* leave the ventral horn in a number of bundles. They take origin from cells in the ventral and lateral horns, and, according to

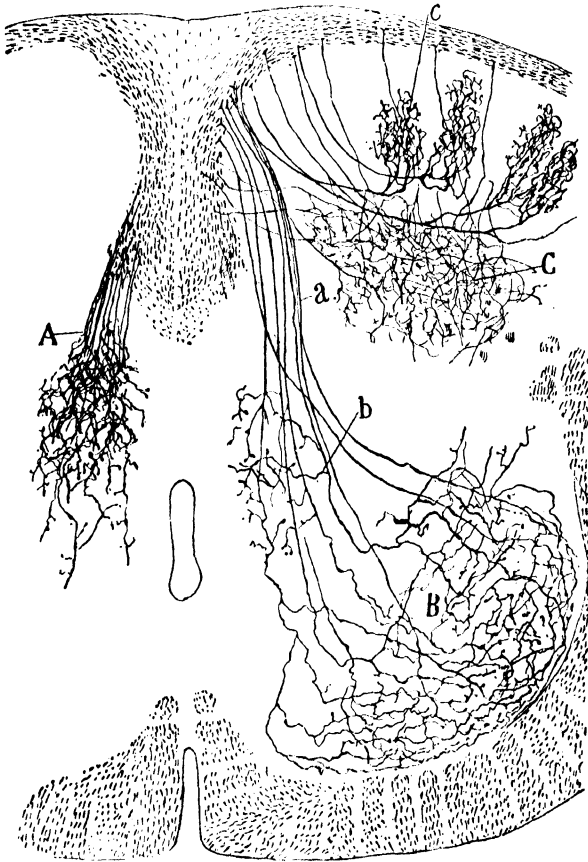


FIG. 552.—COLLATERALS FROM THE DORSAL COLUMN FIBRES PASSING INTO THE GREY MATTER: NEW-BORN MOUSE. (R. y Cajal.) Golgi method.

A, a bunch of collaterals ending amongst the cells of the middle cell-column; B, ending of collaterals, a, in the ventral horn; a few side branches of these collaterals, b, are passing to the middle cell-column; C, collaterals to dorsal horn; c, others to substance of Rolando.

Golgi, in part also from cells in the dorsal horn. The cells are surrounded by an interlacement of ramified nerve-endings derived from various sources, especially from axons of cells of the dorsal horn, from collaterals of the dorsal

root-fibres (see below), and from those of the fibres of the adjacent white columns.

Whether the pyramid-fibres send any branches to end amongst the ventral horn cells is not certain; but Sherrington found a secondary degeneration of these cells in a chimpanzee from which he had removed the motor cortex cerebri of the opposite side.

The fibres of the *dorsal* or *posterior roots* originate in the cells of the root ganglia and enter the dorso-lateral column, but the smallest fibres pass to the marginal bundle of Lissauer, and some go directly into the dorsal horn. On entering the spinal cord each fibre bifurcates (fig. 550), one branch passing upwards, the other downwards. Both from the main fibre and from its branches collateral fibres pass at frequent intervals into the grey matter, and end in arborisations of fibrils which envelop the cells both of the dorsal (fig. 551) and of the ventral horn (fig. 552), and, in the thoracic region, the cells of Clarke's column and those of the intermedio-lateral column. Many of the main fibres terminate in a similar manner in the grey matter, some after a short course only, others after a long course. But a considerable number of fibres pass upwards in the dorso-lateral and dorso-median columns to the medulla oblongata, where they end in terminal arborisations around the cells of the nucleus gracilis and nucleus cuneatus (fig. 547).

Kuré has shown that the dorsal roots also contain numerous fine myelinate fibres originating in the grey matter of the cord and passing to the spinal ganglia where they form synapses with small cells. From these cells other fine myelinate fibres arise and pass into the mixed nerve to be distributed as autonomic (parasympathetic) fibres.

LESSON XLI.

CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM.

THE MEDULLA OBLONGATA.

EXAMINE sections of the medulla oblongata, using the same methods as for the spinal cord (see p. 447): (*a*) at the level of the decussation of the pyramids, (*b*) just above the decussation, (*c*) opposite the middle of the olivary body, and (*d*) through the uppermost part of the olivary body, or just above it.

Divisions of the brain.—The brain consists of three great morphological divisions associated with the three primary cerebral vesicles of the embryo; they are termed respectively the *hind-brain*, *mid-brain*, and *fore-brain*.

The *hind-brain* includes the parts around the fourth ventricle, viz., the medulla oblongata (myelencephalon) and the pons, consisting of a stem and of peduncles uniting it with the cerebellum (metencephalon); the medulla oblongata and pons-stem form a continuation of the spinal cord termed the 'spinal bulb.' The *mid-brain* includes the region of the corpora quadrigemina or mesencephalon. The *fore-brain* comprises the parts immediately above that region and centering around the third ventricle; its lower portion includes the thalami (thalamencephalon), its upper portion the corpora striata and cerebral hemispheres (telencephalon).

GENERAL STRUCTURE OF MEDULLA OBLONGATA.

The structure of the **medulla oblongata** can best be made out by the study of a series of sections taken from below upwards, and by tracing in these the changes which occur in the constituent parts of the spinal cord, taking note at the same time of any parts which may be superadded.

A section through the *region of the decussation of the pyramids* (fig. 553) has much the same form as a section through the upper part of the spinal cord: most of the structures of the cord can be recognised in it. A considerable alteration of the grey matter is, however, produced by the passage of the large bundles of the pyramid-tract crossing from the lateral column of the spinal cord on each side through the base of the ventral horn and across the ventral median fissure to the opposite ventral column of the medulla oblongata, where, together with the fibres of the direct pyramid-tract, which already lies in the ventral column of the cord, they constitute the prominent mass of white fibres which is seen on the ventral aspect of the medulla oblongata, on each side of the middle line, known as the *pyramid*, from which

the name of the tract is derived. By this passage of fibres through the grey matter the tip of the ventral horn is cut off from the rest and is pushed to the side; part of it appears as an isolated mass of grey matter, known as the *lateral nucleus*.

In sections a little higher, viz., *just above the decussation of the pyramids*, a wavy band of grey matter makes its appearance on the lateral aspect of each pyramid, corresponding with a prominence on the surface which is known as the *olive*. The wavy or plicated grey matter is termed the *olivary nucleus* (figs. 554, 556, 557).

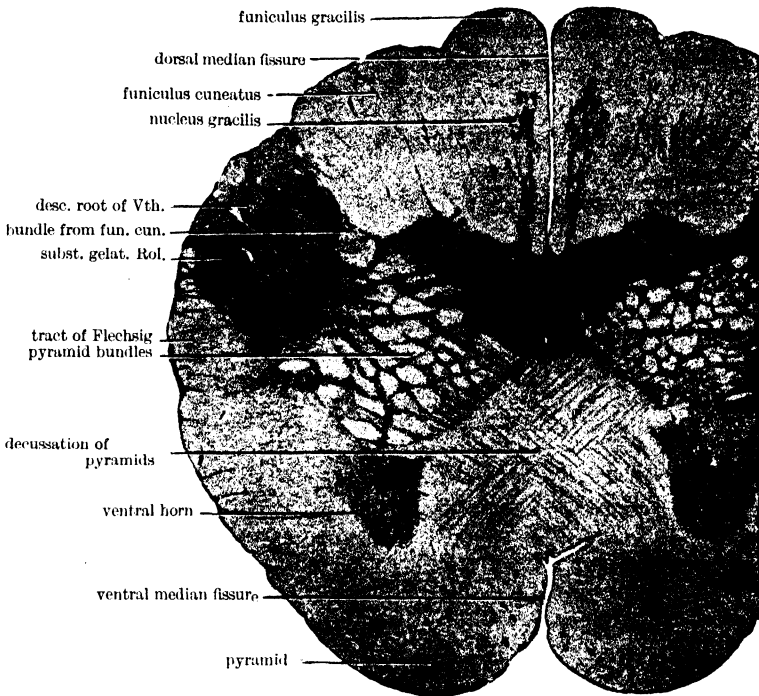


FIG. 553.—SECTION ACROSS THE LOWER PART OF THE MEDULLA OBLONGATA AT THE DECUSSATION OF THE PYRAMIDS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 6\frac{1}{2}$. Photograph.

The *pyramids* of the medulla oblongata are formed of fibres which originate in the frontal region of the cerebral cortex, and can be traced from the axons of the large cells in the grey matter of that cortex. The fibres course through the white matter of the hemisphere, through the middle third or more of the internal capsule and crusta, and are continued as the pyramid-bundles of the pons into these structures (pyramids) of the medulla oblongata. As we have just seen, they pass at the lower limit of the bulb chiefly to the opposite or crossed lateral column of the cord, but partly to the lateral column of the same side, and, in man and anthropoid apes, partly to the mesial part of the ventral white column. They collectively constitute the *tract of the pyramid*, which

is smaller in the medulla oblongata than in the pons, since many of its fibres leave the main tract whilst within the pons and pass across the middle line towards the grey matter which lies in the dorso-lateral part of the pons and medulla oblongata, especially in that portion of the grey matter with which the sensory fibres of the cranial nerves are connected. Sometimes such a bundle of fibres, after passing towards the sensory nuclei in the lateral part of the medulla oblongata, does not end in them, but again comes ventral-wards and joins the main or central part of the pyramid-tract near its decussation (*bundle of Pick*).

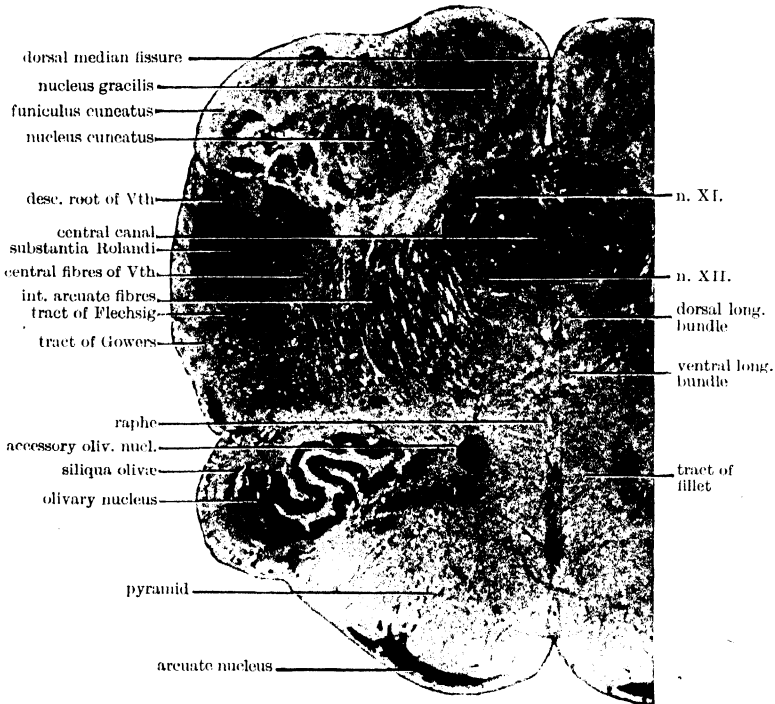


FIG. 554.—SECTION TAKEN IMMEDIATELY ABOVE THE DECUSSATION OF THE PYRAMIDS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 6\frac{1}{2}$. Photograph.

It is not a little remarkable that, although the fibres of the tract of the pyramid give off numerous collaterals to the grey matter of the cerebral cortex, the basal ganglia of the cerebrum, the substantia nigra of the mid-brain, the nuclei of the pons and the base of the dorsal horn of the spinal cord, no collaterals are seen to leave them in their course through the pyramids of the medulla oblongata, except a very few to the olivary nuclei. Various observers have professed to describe collaterals and terminations of the pyramid fibres as passing to the motor nuclei of the cranial nerves as well as to the motor cells in the ventral horn of the spinal cord, but statements to this effect must be received with caution, for although current in many text-books, they have not been substantiated by accurate observations. It is certain that most if not all of the fibres of the pyramid-tract end not in the ventral but in the dorsal part of the spinal grey matter.

In consequence of the increased development of the dorsal columns of white matter a change also occurs in the grey matter of the dorsal horns, which in the medulla oblongata are pushed towards the side, the V they form with one another being thus opened out; at the same time the tip of each horn becomes enlarged and causes a prominence upon the surface of the medulla oblongata, which is known as the *tubercle of Rolando*. Below, this is continuous with the substantia Rolandi of the apex of the dorsal horn of the cord. Above, its grey matter is prolonged into the sensory nucleus of the fifth nerve. On its outer side and partly embracing it is a bundle of fibres seen in every section of the medulla oblongata, and traceable up to the pons Varolii. This is the *inferior* or *descending root of the fifth nerve*—formerly known as the ‘ascending’ root. Its fibres extend down as far as the upper cervical region of the spinal cord. Grey matter also soon becomes formed within the upward prolongations of the gracile funiculus (dorso-mesial column), and of the cuneate funiculus (dorso-lateral column), appearing at first as thin strands in the middle of the columns (fig. 553), but rapidly increasing in thickness (fig. 554) so as eventually to occupy almost the whole of them, forming the *nucleus gracilis* and the *nucleus cuneatus* respectively.

It is in these nuclei that the fibres of Goll's and Burdach's tracts, which are continued up from the dorsal columns of the spinal cord, find their ultimate ending in complicated arborisations amongst the cells of the nuclei. These nuclei do not, however, receive all the ascending branches of the dorsal root-fibres, for a considerable number of these have already disappeared by entering the grey matter of the cord, in which they also end by arborisation among the cells. The cells of the nucleus gracilis and nucleus cuneatus are of

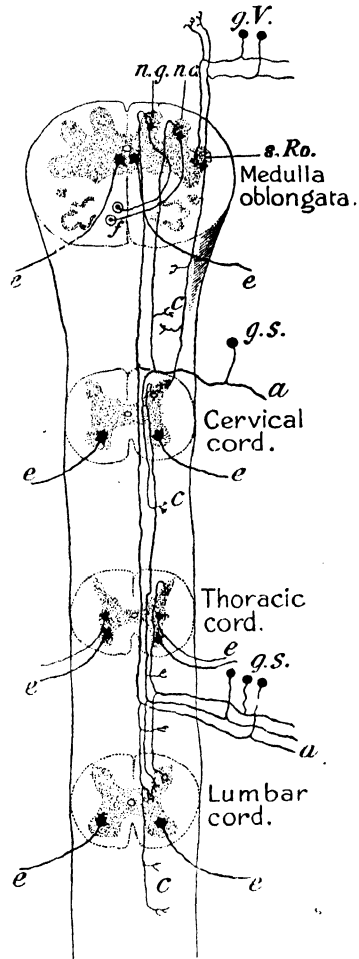


FIG. 555.—DIAGRAM TO SHOW THE COURSE OF THE DORSAL ROOT-FIBRES AFTER ENTERING THE CORD. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

a, afferent fibres before entering ganglion; g.s., spinal ganglion-cells; g.V., ganglion of fifth nerve; c, descending branches (forming comma tract) giving off collaterals to grey matter. The ascending branches are shown partly ending in grey matter of dorsal horn, partly in the nucleus gracilis (n.g.) and nucleus cuneatus (n.c.) of the medulla oblongata; s.Ro., substantia Rolandi; f, fibres of fillet arising in nuclei of medulla oblongata and crossing the raphe to the opposite side; e, efferent nerve-fibres from motor nerve-cells.

small or moderate size with long dendrons. Their axons pass as internal arcuate fibres through the reticular formation into the interolivary layer, cross the median raphe dorsal to the pyramids (fig 555, *f*), and then turn upwards, constituting the *tract of the fillet*. This tract, which in its lowest part is thus formed by the nerve-fibres which belong to the second relay, or second neurones, of one of the sensory spinal paths, is reinforced, in the higher regions of the medulla oblongata and in the pons, by fibres derived from cells of the sensory nuclei of the cranial nerves. The majority of its fibres end in the lateral nucleus of the thalamus, but some pass to both the anterior and posterior corpora quadrigemina.

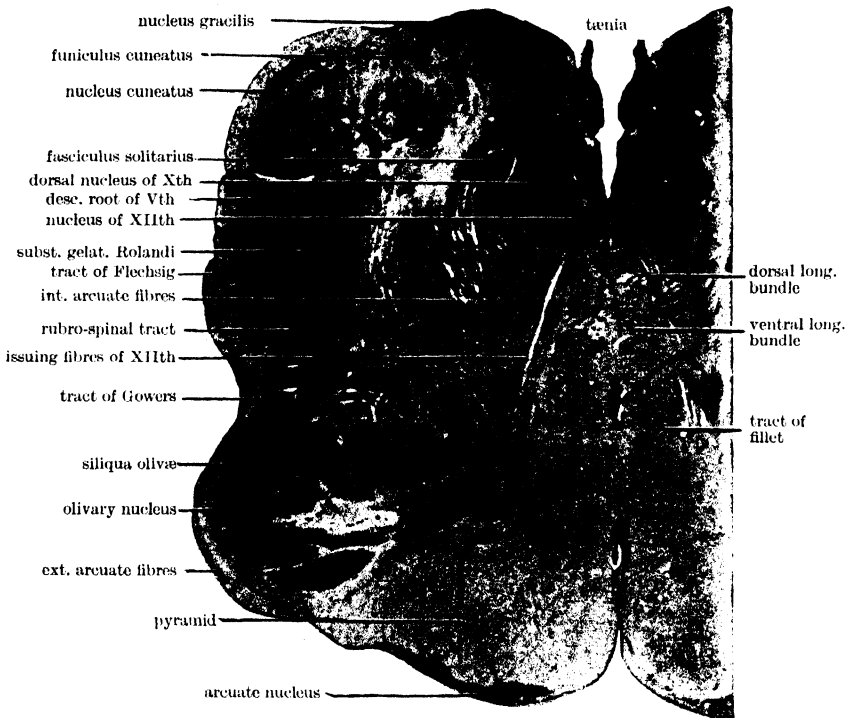


FIG. 556.—SECTION ACROSS THE MEDULLA OBLONGATA AT THE POINT OF THE CALAMUS SCRIPTORIUS OF THE FOURTH VENTRICLE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 6\frac{1}{2}$. Photograph.

According to Van Gehuchten the fibres of the fillet which are derived from the nucleus cuneatus lie dorsally to those which are derived from the nucleus gracilis.

The continuation of the *central canal* of the spinal cord is still seen in the lower medulla oblongata (figs. 553, 554), but it comes nearer to the posterior surface and eventually opens out at the point of the calamus scriptorius of the fourth ventricle (fig. 556). The grey matter which surrounds it contains two well-marked groups of nerve-cells; the ventral of these is the lower part of the *nucleus of the hypoglossal* or *twelfth nerve*, the dorsal, with smaller cells, that of the *vago-accessory* or *tenth and eleventh nerves*. But

most of the grey matter of the crescent becomes broken up, by the passage of bundles of nerve-fibres through it, into a well-marked *reticular formation*. And instead of the comparatively narrow isthmus which joins the two halves of the spinal cord, a broad *raphe* now makes its appearance: this is formed of fibres coursing obliquely and ventro-dorsally, together with some grey matter containing nerve-cells.

In a section at *about the middle of the olive* (fig. 557) it will be seen that a marked change has been produced in the form of the medulla oblongata

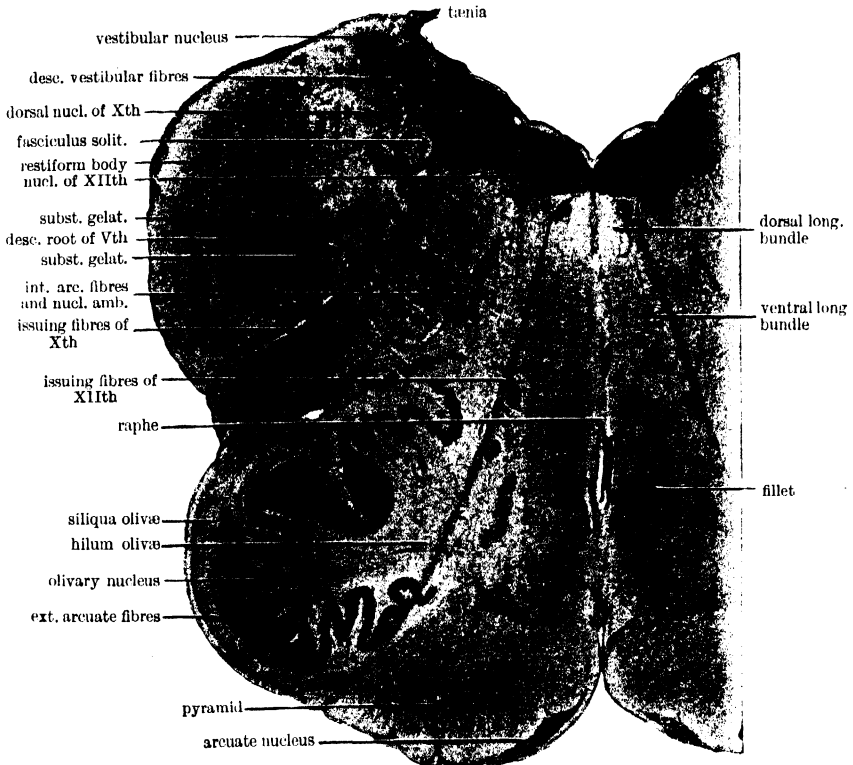


FIG. 557.—SECTION ACROSS THE MEDULLA OBLONGATA, AT ABOUT THE MIDDLE OF THE OLIVARY BODY. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 6\frac{1}{2}$. Photograph.

and the arrangement of its grey matter, by the opening out of the central canal into the fourth ventricle. This causes the grey matter, which lower down surrounded the central canal, to be spread out at the floor of the fourth ventricle, and the collections of nerve-cells from which the hypoglossal and vagus nerves respectively arise, now, therefore, lie in a corresponding situation near the ventricular floor. At this level the outer small-celled group which corresponds with the nucleus of the spinal accessory in the lower part of the bulb has become the *dorsal nucleus of the vagus* or *tenth nerve*, and yet higher up the *dorsal nucleus of the glosso-pharyngeal* or *ninth nerve*. The nerve-

bundles of the roots of these nerves can be seen in some of the sections (fig. 557) coursing through the thickness of the bulb and emerging, those of the hypoglossal just outside the pyramids, those of the vagus at the side of the medulla oblongata.

The dorsal part of the section is chiefly occupied by the grey matter of the floor of the fourth ventricle, and by fibres, which are passing obliquely upwards and outwards towards the cerebellum, forming in its inferior peduncle or *restiform body*. The grey matter forming the nucleus of the funiculus gracilis and of the funiculus cuneatus has now almost disappeared, but in place of these nuclei and near the outer part of the floor of the fourth ventricle are seen some masses of grey matter with a number of bundles of nerve-fibres among them. The grey matter is the lower part of the principal nucleus of the vestibular nerve (see p. 479), and the white bundles are formed of descending branches of the fibres of that nerve. Ventral to these is the descending root of the fifth, with its nucleus mesial to it.

The ventral part of the section is occupied by the pyramid, and dorsal to this by a reticular formation, the *reticularis alba*, composed of longitudinally coursing bundles of fibres belonging to the *tract of the fillet* and to the *dorsal and ventral longitudinal bundles*, interlaced with internal arcuate fibres that are passing across the raphe from the nuclei of the contralateral dorsal columns into the fillet, and from the opposite olive into the restiform body.

The middle portion of the section consists for the most part of a similar reticular formation, but with more grey matter and nerve-cells, the *reticularis grisea*. This is a development of the formatio reticularis of the cervical cord, and the longitudinally coursing white bundles in it are probably formed of fibres derived from cells in the upper part of the cord. The nerve-cells of the grey reticular formation in the medulla oblongata give origin to fibres which bifurcate and pass both upwards to the same formation in the pons, and downwards towards the upper part of the cord, probably serving to associate these parts. Some also are said to give origin to arcuate fibres which either traverse the raphe, or remain on the same side and eventually enter the cerebellum through the inferior peduncle (Van Gehuchten).

Ventro-laterally is the *olive*, within which is developed a peculiar wavy lamina of grey matter containing a large number of nerve-cells; this is the *dentate nucleus of the olive*. The lamina is incomplete at its mesial aspect or *hilum olivæ*, and here a large number of fibres issue, and, passing through the raphe, course as internal arcuate fibres to the opposite restiform body, and thus to the cerebellum. Some, however, turn sharply round and course below the dentate nucleus, forming an investment and capsule to it, the *siliqua olivæ*, before passing to the restiform body of the same side: the main connexion of the olivary nucleus is, however, with the cerebellar hemisphere of the opposite side. The olives receive numerous collaterals from the neighbouring white columns, including a few from the pyramids. Dorsal, or dorso-lateral to the olive, is the continuation upwards of the *ventral spino-cerebellar bundle* (tract of Gowers) of the spinal cord; the continuation of the *dorsal spino-cerebellar bundle* (tract of Flechsig), just dorsal to it, is now passing into the restiform body. Lastly, a tract of fibres originating within the

thalamus passes over the lateral surface of the nucleus olivæ and ends within its grey matter (*thalamo olivary tract*, *central tegmental tract* of Bechterew).

The cells of the olivary nucleus have numerous dendrons; their axons all pass towards the hilum, whence they emerge, and, for the most part, cross the raphe, pierce the opposite olivary nucleus, and pass, as already mentioned, into the restiform body (*olivo-cerebellar tract*).

Nerves arising from the medulla oblongata.—The twelfth, eleventh, tenth, ninth, and eighth nerves all take origin in the medulla oblongata and their

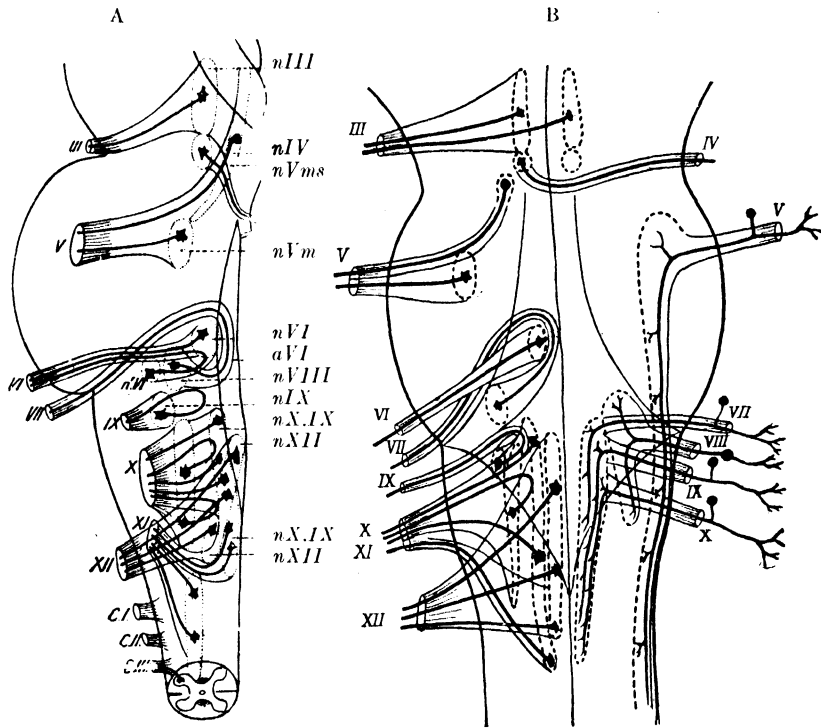


FIG. 558.—DIAGRAMS ILLUSTRATING THE ORIGIN AND RELATIONS OF THE ROOT-FIBRES OF THE CRANIAL NERVES. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

A, efferent fibres only; profile view.

B, shows on the left the motor nuclei and efferent fibres (except those of the fourth nerve), and on the right side the afferent fibres; view from the dorsal aspect. The parts are supposed to be transparent.

fibres may be seen emerging on each side, those of the twelfth ventrally between the pyramid and olive, and those of the others in succession from below up at the side of the medulla oblongata between the olive and restiform body.

The **twelfth** or **hypoglossal nerve** arises from a nucleus of large cells, similar to those of the ventral horn of the cord. This nucleus is situated in the lower part of the bulb ventro-lateral to the central canal (fig. 554); in the upper part near to the floor of the fourth ventricle close to the middle line (figs. 556 to 558). None of the fibres cross to the opposite side; furthermore, according to Van Gehuchten, this is true of all the cranial nerves, except

a few fibres of the third nerve and the whole of the fourth nerve. The hypoglossal nucleus extends throughout the lower two-thirds of the bulb (fig. 558, *nXII*). It receives many collaterals from adjacent sensory tracts in the reticular formation and from the descending sensory fibres of the fifth, ninth, and tenth nerves, as well as from the dorsal longitudinal bundle. These form within the nucleus a plexus of fine fibrils which is highly characteristic. A similar plexus is seen in the oculo-motor nucleus.

Mesial to the hypoglossal nucleus, in the open part of the medulla oblongata, is the *nucleus of the fasciculus teres*, a column of moderate-sized cells which extends towards the lower margin of the pons and appears to receive fibres from the cerebellum (Eninger).

The **eleventh** or **spinal accessory nerve** begins to take origin from cells in the lateral part of the grey matter of the spinal cord as low down as the fifth cervical nerve. Its fibres from the cord (spinal fibres) are those to the voluntary sternomastoid and trapezius muscles. They pass from the cells of origin in the lateral part of the ventral horn (*motor nucleus*) at first dorsal-wards; they then take a sharp bend outwards through the lateral column to emerge at the side of the cord and medulla oblongata. The fibres which join the vagus (bulbar fibres) take origin in a nucleus of relatively small cells lying dorso-laterally to the central canal of the medulla oblongata and behind the hypoglossal nucleus. This nucleus is continuous above with the corresponding nucleus of the vagus, and with it forms the *dorsal vago-accessory nucleus* (figs. 554; 556 to 558). Below, it extends nearly as far as the first cervical nerve; its upper or vagal part is in the floor of the fourth ventricle lateral to the hypoglossal nucleus, and reaches nearly as far as the lower border of the pons. Of the whole nucleus, about the lower two-thirds, *i.e.*, as far as the end of the calamus scriptorius, give origin to fibres of the accessory. These fibres, as already stated, join the vagus, to which they supply certain motor fibres, including those of the thyro-arytenoid muscle (Van Gehuchten). The twelfth and eleventh nerves are entirely efferent.

The **tenth** or **vagus nerve (pneumogastric)** contains both motor (efferent) and sensory (afferent) fibres. The efferent fibres arise (1) from the upper part of the dorsal vago-accessory nucleus just described, (2) from a nucleus of grey matter containing large cells situated in the reticular formation (fig. 559, *n.amb.*). This nucleus begins near the lower limit of the bulb and extends nearly to the facial nucleus, which it resembles in general position; it is known as the *nucleus ambiguus* or *ventral nucleus of the tenth nerve*. The axons of its cells are directed at first dorsalwards and inwards and then turn sharply round in the lateral direction to join the rest of the issuing fibres of the nerve, coursing in the same manner as the spinal fibres of the accessory; indeed, this nucleus is continuous below with the column of cells from which those fibres take origin.

The sensory fibres of the vagus take origin in the *ganglion of the root* and the *ganglion of the trunk* (*jugular* and *plexiform ganglia*), from unipolar cells like those of the spinal ganglia (fig. 559, *g*). They enter the medulla oblongata and then bifurcate, one branch, a short (ascending) one, passing

at once into an upper sensory nucleus, the other, a long one, descending. The upper sensory nucleus, or *principal nucleus*, in which the short branches from the sensory root end, lies in grey matter near the floor of the ventricle, and is continuous with the grey matter which accompanies the *fasciculus solitarius* (figs. 556, 557, 559). This bundle is formed by the descending fibres, with similar fibres of the ninth and those of the *pars intermedia* of the seventh, and is to be regarded as the *descending root of facial, vagus, and glossopharyngeal*. It is traceable to the lower limit of the medulla oblongata; the fibres end in a nucleus of grey matter lying along the mesial border of the root (*descending nucleus of facial, vagus, and glossopharyngeal*). This nucleus approaches the middle line as it descends, and in some animals terminates by joining its fellow of the opposite side over the central canal to form the *commissural nucleus of Cajal*.

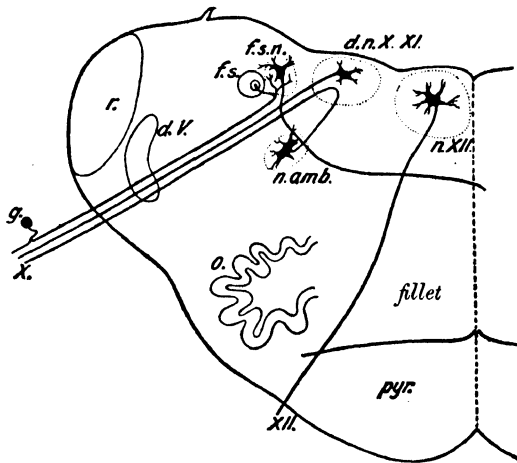


FIG. 559.—DIAGRAM OF THE ORIGIN OF THE TWELFTH AND TENTH NERVES.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

pyr., pyramid; *n.XII.*, nucleus of hypoglossal; *XII.*, fibre of hypoglossal; *d.n.X.XI.*, dorsal nucleus of vagus and accessory; *n.amb.*, nucleus ambiguus; *f.s.*, fasciculus solitarius (descending root of vagus and glossopharyngeal); *f.s.n.*, its nucleus; *X.*, emerging motor fibres of vagus; *g.*, cell in ganglion of vagus giving origin to a sensory fibre; *d.V.*, descending root of fifth; *r.*, restiform body.

The **ninth or glossopharyngeal nerve** also contains both efferent and afferent fibres. The former have their cells of origin in a special nucleus, the *motor nucleus of glossopharyngeal*, which occupies a position similar to that of the nucleus ambiguus, and lying near the anterior (upper) end of that nucleus, just below the nucleus of the facial. The afferent fibres of the nerve arise in the *jugular (upper)* and in the *petrosal ganglion* from unipolar cells like those of the spinal ganglia. Their central axons enter the medulla oblongata, and, like other sensory fibres, divide into two branches, ascending and descending. The course of these is like those of the vagus, the descending passing down in the fasciculus solitarius (extending to about one-third of its length according to A. Bruce), and ending by arborising in the grey matter accompanying it (*descending root and its nucleus*), while the ascending branches

pass nearly horizontally backwards and inwards to a nucleus, the *principal nucleus*, beneath the inferior fovea of the fourth ventricle ; this is continuous

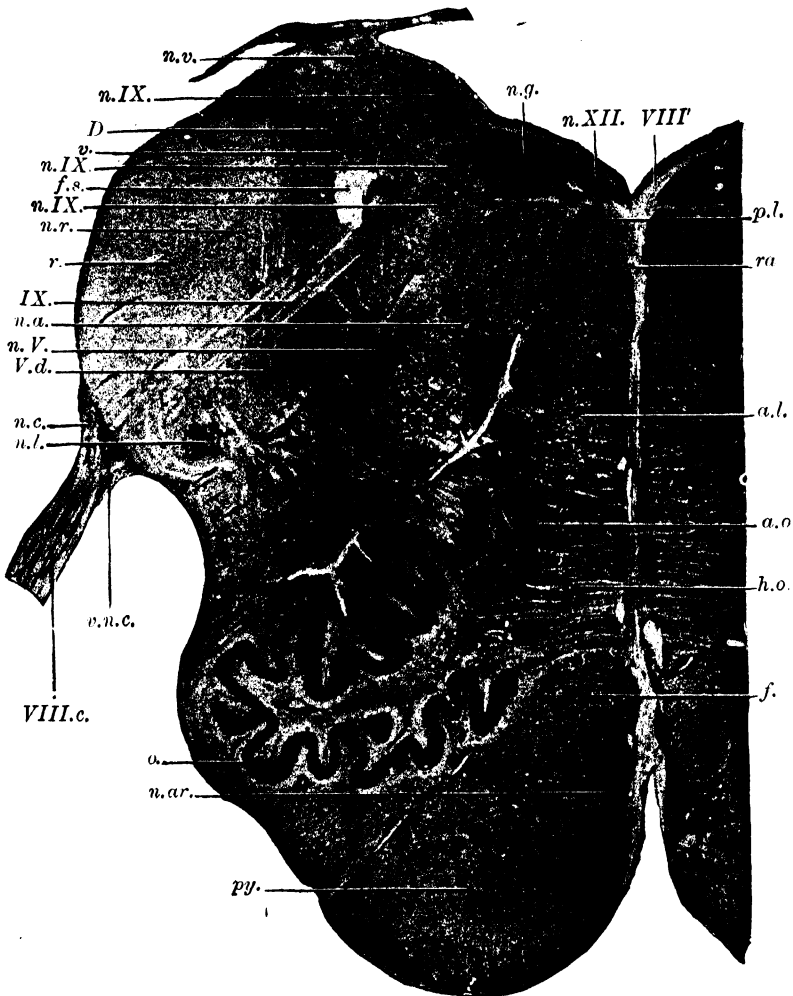


FIG. 560.—SECTION OF MEDULLA OBLONGATA AT THE LEVEL OF THE EIGHTH NERVE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) \times about 6. Photograph.

n.v., part of vestibular nucleus ; *n.IX.*, parts of nucleus of ninth nerve ; *D*, nucleus of Deiters ; *v.*, descending fibres of vestibular nerve ; *f.s.*, fasciculus solitarius ; *n.r.*, small nucleus in restiform ; *r.*, restiform body ; *IX.*, fibres of ninth nerve ; *n.a.*, nucleus ambiguus ; *n.V.*, sensory nucleus of fifth nerve ; *V.d.*, descending root of fifth ; *n.c.*, part of dorsal cochlear nucleus ; *VIII.c.*, cochlear division of eighth nerve ; *v.n.c.*, ventral cochlear nucleus ; *n.l.*, lateral nucleus ; *o.*, olivary nucleus ; *n.ar.*, nucleus of arciform fibres ; *py.*, pyramid ; *n.g.*, grey matter in floor of fourth ventricle ; *n.XII.*, nucleus of twelfth ; *VIII'*, fibres of cochlear nerve entering raphe ; *p.l.*, dorsal longitudinal bundle ; *ra.*, raphe ; *a.l.*, ventral longitudinal bundle ; *a.o.*, accessory olivary nucleus ; *h.o.*, fibres issuing from the hilum of the olive ; *f.*, fibres of fillet.

with the upper end of the nucleus of the descending root. The arrangement of the roots is almost an exact counterpart of that of the vagus shown in the diagram given in fig. 559.

According to Edinger the sensory nuclei of these nerves receive fibres from the cerebellum, constituting a *cerebello-bulbar tract*, which is much better marked in lower vertebrates than in man and mammals.

A section taken *through the uppermost part of the olivary prominence* will still show very much the same form and structural arrangements as that just described (fig. 560). The *nucleus of the hypoglossal* (figs. 560, 561, *n.XII*) is still visible in the grey matter of the floor of the ventricle near the middle line, but the nerve which is now seen connected with the lateral part is the *eighth* (fig. 561, *VIII*), the bundles of which, as they enter the bulb, embrace the inferior peduncle of the cerebellum (*corpus restiforme, c.r.*), which is now passing into that organ. The origin of the eighth nerve is thus subdivided into two principal parts, known respectively as the *dorsal* or *cochlear* and the *ventral* or *vestibular* divisions.

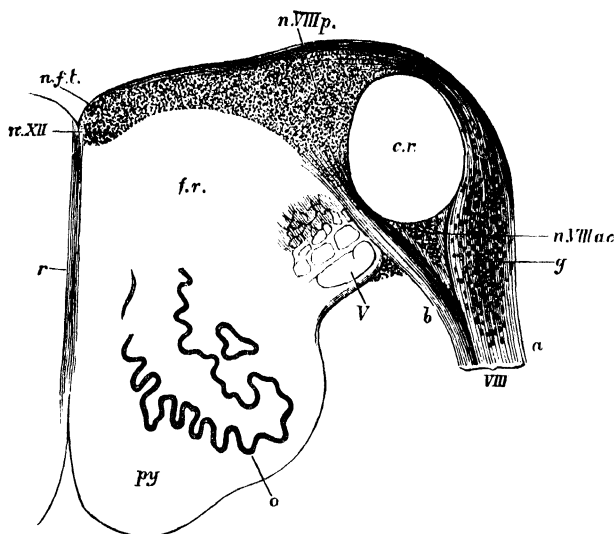


FIG. 561.—TRANSVERSE SECTION OF THE UPPER PART OF THE MEDULLA OBLONGATA. Four times the natural size. (Schwalbe.)

py, pyramid; *o*, olivary nucleus; *V*, descending root of the fifth nerve; *VIII*, root of the eighth nerve, formed of two parts, *a*, cochlear, and *b*, vestibular, which enclose the restiform body, *c.r.*; *n.VIIIp*, principal nucleus of the vestibular division; *n.VIIIac*, ventral or accessory nucleus of the cochlear division; *n.f.t.*, nucleus of the funiculus teres; *n.XII*, nucleus of the hypoglossal; *r*, raphe; *f.r.*, reticular formation.

The eighth nerve.—The fibres of the cochlear division take origin in the *ganglion of the cochlea*; those of the vestibular division in the *ganglion of Scarpa*. These ganglia, which are situated at the periphery, the former within, the latter near the internal ear, are composed of bipolar cells, of which the peripheral axons end by ramifying amongst the cells of the sensory epithelium, and the central axons form the cochlear and the vestibular divisions of the eighth nerve, and pass into the medulla oblongata in the manner here described.

The fibres of the **dorsal** or **cochlear division (cochlear nerve)** bifurcate as they enter the medulla oblongata. Each fibre divides into a thick and a

thin branch. The thicker branches pass partly to a mass of ganglion-cells which is wedged in between the two roots and the restiform body, and is known as the *ventral* or *accessory auditory nucleus* (figs. 561, 562, *n.acc.*), applying themselves with a peculiar form of terminal arborisation to the cells of this nucleus, and partly over the restiform body to terminate in a prominent mass of grey matter which overlies that body, and also extends to the lateral part of the floor of the fourth ventricle at its widest part (*dorso-lateral nucleus*, *tuberculum acusticum*). The cells of the tubercle have a peculiar spindle shape and are set vertically to the surface. They begin to appear in the root itself, lying among the fibres of the nerve. Here they are sometimes spoken of as forming the 'ganglion of the root.' The thinner

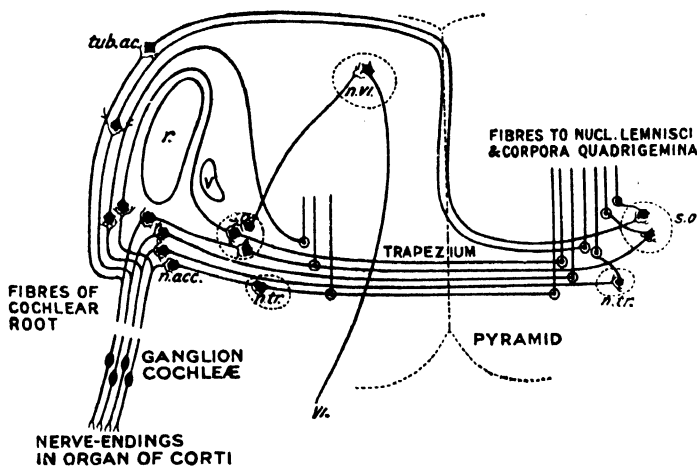


FIG. 562.—PLAN OF THE COURSE AND CONNEXIONS OF THE FIBRES FORMING THE COCHLEAR ROOT OF THE AUDITORY NERVE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

r., restiform body; *V.*, descending root of the fifth nerve; *tub.ac.*, tuberculum acusticum; *n.acc.*, accessory nucleus; *s.o.*, superior olive; *n.tr.*, nucleus of trapezium; *n.vi.*, nucleus of sixth nerve; *VI.*, issuing root fibre of sixth nerve. The 'acoustic striae' are seen at the dorsal part of the section.

branches of the bifurcated cochlear fibres pass downwards for a certain distance and break up into a plexus of fine fibrils.

These two nuclei, viz., the accessory nucleus and the acoustic tubercle, are the nuclei of ending of the cochlear fibres. From their nerve-cells new fibres arise which continue the auditory path centrally (see fig. 562). Those from the accessory nucleus enter the *trapezium*—which consists of transverse fibres running behind the pyramid-bundles of the pons Varolii—and pass in it partly to the superior olive and trapezoid nucleus of the same side of the pons, but mostly to the corresponding structures of the opposite side. Some end in those nuclei, but others merely traverse them, giving off numerous collaterals to them and other nuclei near by (see pons), and then turn upwards in the lateral part of the tract of the fillet to pass ultimately to the posterior corpora quadrigemina and mesial geniculate bodies; in tending towards these structures they form, with the fibres arising from the nuclei just mentioned, the *lateral fillet*, or *fillet of Reil*, which is conspicuous at the side of

the mid-brain. Some of the fibres from the cells of the accessory nucleus do not pass directly to the trapezium, but first curve round the restiform body (Held); these form the most dorsally situated fibres of the trapezium. Those which arise in the acoustic tubercle pass for the most part over the floor of the fourth ventricle, where they form part of a superficial strand of fibres known as the *medullary* or *acoustic striæ* (fig. 562), and, entering the raphe, traverse it in a dorso-ventral direction; they then join the others from the accessory nucleus in their course to the superior olive and lateral fillet of which they constitute the deeper layer. A few fibres are directed into the fillet of the same side as their cells of origin.

Edinger states that, at least in the dog, all the fibres of the trapezium end in its nucleus or in the superior olivary nucleus, the central acoustic path being wholly continued, so far as the trapezium fibres are concerned, by fresh neurones, the cell-bodies of which lie in those nuclei, and the axons of which pass into the lateral fillet. On the other hand, from the cells in the tuberculum acusticum, the axons are said to be continued upwards in the opposite lateral fillet without the intervention of any corresponding nuclei. The lateral fillets pass above into the posterior corpora quadrigemina and mesial geniculate bodies.

The accessory nucleus also *receives* fibres through the trapezium, which end by ramifying amongst its cells. These are perhaps derived from the accessory nucleus of the opposite side. Both sets of fibres (from the accessory nucleus and tuberculum) give off collaterals near their origin, which terminate within these nuclei.

The **ventral** or **vestibular division** (**vestibular nerve**), which enters a little in front of and above the cochlear division, passes between the restiform body and the descending root of the fifth (fig. 563), to enter a mass of grey matter containing for the most part cells of small size, which is termed the *principal* or *dorsal nucleus* of the vestibular division. Here each of its fibres bifurcates with a Y-shaped division into an ascending and descending branch (fig. 563). The descending branches are collected into small bundles forming the *descending vestibular root* which runs downwards towards the lower part of the medulla oblongata, and gradually ends by arborising around cells in the adjacent grey matter to form the *descending vestibular nucleus*, which is continued down from the principal nucleus. The ascending branches pass upwards on the inner side of the restiform body towards the nucleus tecti of the cerebellum. In their course they give off numerous collaterals which arborise around the large cells of two nuclei which occur in this part of the medulla oblongata and pons near the outer part of the floor of the fourth ventricle. These two nuclei are termed respectively the *nucleus of Deiters* and the *nucleus of Bechterew* (fig. 563, D and B).

Van Gehuchten states that the nucleus of Bechterew alone receives fibres from the ascending branches and that all the other nuclei (dorsal, descending, and nucleus of Deiters) are furnished with fibres from the descending branches.

The *nucleus of Deiters* is especially characterised by the large size of its cells and by the manner in which they are enveloped as by basket-work by

the ramifications of the collaterals in question. From these cells fibres arise which pass to the dorsal (posterior) longitudinal bundles of both sides: in these the fibres bifurcate (Cajal), one branch passing upwards to the oculomotor nucleus and giving off collaterals to the nucleus of the sixth nerve, and the other downwards, eventually reaching the ventral column of the spinal cord (ventro-lateral descending tract), and terminating by arborisations amongst the cells of the ventral horn. By means of the collateral fibres which supply the sixth and oculomotor nuclei it is probable that the conjugate movements of the two eyes are brought about, and by the fibres to the spinal cord the associated movements of the head and trunk. Fibres have also been described as passing from Deiters' nucleus to the nucleus tecti

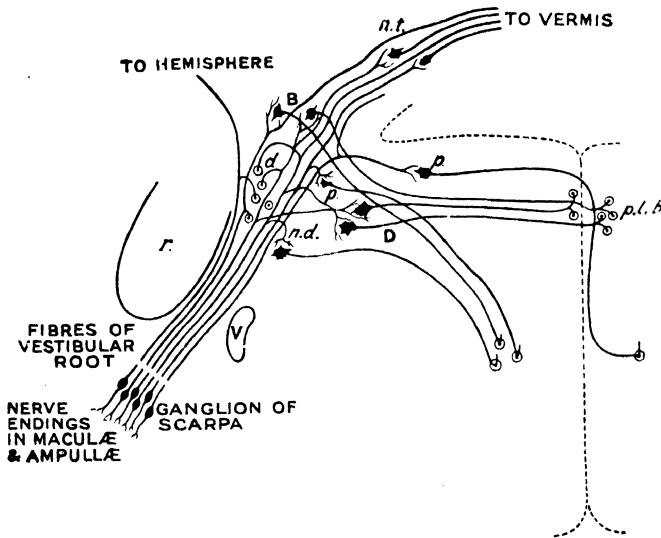


FIG. 563.—PLAN OF THE COURSE AND CONNEXIONS OF THE FIBRES FORMING THE VESTIBULAR ROOT OF THE AUDITORY NERVE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

r., restiform body; *V*, descending root of fifth nerve; *p.*, cells of principal nucleus of vestibular root; *d.*, fibres of descending vestibular root; *n.d.*, a cell of the descending vestibular nucleus; *B*, cells of nucleus of Deiters; *B*, cells of nucleus of Bechterew; *n.t.*, cells of nucleus tecti (fastigii) of the cerebellum; *p.l.b.*, fibres of the dorsal longitudinal bundle. No attempt has been made in this diagram to represent the actual positions of the several nuclei. Thus a large part of Deiters' nucleus lies dorsal to and in the immediate vicinity of the restiform body.

of the cerebellum. The nucleus of Deiters appears also to receive fibres from the cerebellum and mid-brain. Owing to its connexion with the semi-circular canals, the cerebellum, the oculomotor nuclei, and the nuclei in the ventral horn of the spinal cord, this nucleus must exercise important functions in connexion with co-ordination of head and eye movements and equilibration in general.

The fibres which originate in the *nucleus of Bechterew* pass into the reticular formation and become longitudinal, forming a part of the vestibulo-spinal path in the ventro-lateral column of the cord.

The **reticular formation** still occupies the greater part of each lateral half of the bulb between the grey matter at the floor of the fourth ventricle and

the pyramids, and a small portion of the *olivary nucleus* may still be seen. The descending root of the fifth nerve with its adjacent grey matter is conspicuous.

The **restiform body** is formed :—(1) of the fibres of the dorsal spino-cerebellar tract of the same side, which are derived below from cells of Clarke's column, and pass above into the middle lobe of the cerebellum ; (2) of fibres from the opposite olivary nucleus ; (3) of fibres from the olivary nucleus of the same side. The olivary fibres pass mainly to the cerebellar hemisphere. According to some authorities the restiform body also contains fibres derived from the nucleus gracilis and nucleus cuneatus of the opposite side, as well as some from a nucleus which lies just outside the main mass of grey matter of the funiculus cuneatus, and is known as the *outer cuneate nucleus*.

Fourth ventricle.—The *floor* is covered by a layer of ciliated epithelium-cells, continuous below with those lining the central canal, and above, through the aqueduct, with the epithelium of the third and lateral ventricles. The epithelium rests upon, and its cells assist in forming, a layer of neuroglial tissue known as the *ependyma* of the ventricle. The fourth ventricle is roofed over by a layer of pia mater, with projecting choroid plexuses, and its free surface is covered by an epithelial layer continuous at each side with the ciliated epithelium of the floor. The roof becomes somewhat thickened as it is continued into the ependymal layer of the floor of the ventricle ; this thickened part (*tænia* or *ligula*, figs. 556, 557) is often left attached when the thin roof of the pia mater which covers the ventricle is stripped away.

LESSONS XLII. AND XLIII.

THE PONS VAROLII, MESENCEPHALON, AND THALAMENCEPHALON.

1. EXAMINE sections through the lower, middle, and upper parts of the pons.
2. Examine sections across the region of the corpora quadrigemina, one at the level of the inferior, the other at the level of the superior, pair.
3. Examine a section across the posterior part of the third ventricle passing through the thalami.

In all the above sections sketch under a low power the general outlines of the grey and white matter, inserting the positions of the chief groups of nerve-cells.

(The tissue is fixed and stained in the same way as for the spinal cord. See p. 447.)

PONS VAROLII.

Sections through the **lower part of the pons** (fig. 564) show much the same arrangement of grey and white matter as that met with in the upper part of the medulla oblongata, but the general appearance of the sections is much modified by the presence of a large number of transversely coursing bundles of nerve-fibres, most if not all of which are passing to the hemispheres of the cerebellum (fibres of middle peduncle of cerebellum). Some of the more ventral of these peduncular fibres often form a detached bundle which is known as the *tænia pontis*. In the interstices of the transverse bundles is a considerable amount of grey matter, the *nuclei pontis*, from the cells of which the fibres of the middle peduncle of the opposite side are derived. Among the cells of the nuclei pontis many collaterals of the pyramid-tracts end, and the cortico-pontine fibres (see below) also terminate here; in this way is formed a connexion between the cerebral hemisphere of the one side and the cerebellar hemisphere of the opposite side. The continuation of the pyramids of the medulla oblongata in the pons takes the form of a number of separate

commissural between the auditory nuclei of the two sides. The fibres of the trapezium traverse a collection of nerve-cells lying ventral to the superior olivary nucleus, and known as the *nucleus of the trapezium* (fig. 564, *n.tr.*).

This nucleus is characterised by the peculiar chalice-like synapses which the entering axons of the larger acoustic fibres form with the cell-bodies (Held). According to Cajal these large fibres are continued directly from the root-fibres of the cochlear nerve, and are not derived from the cells of its accessory nucleus.

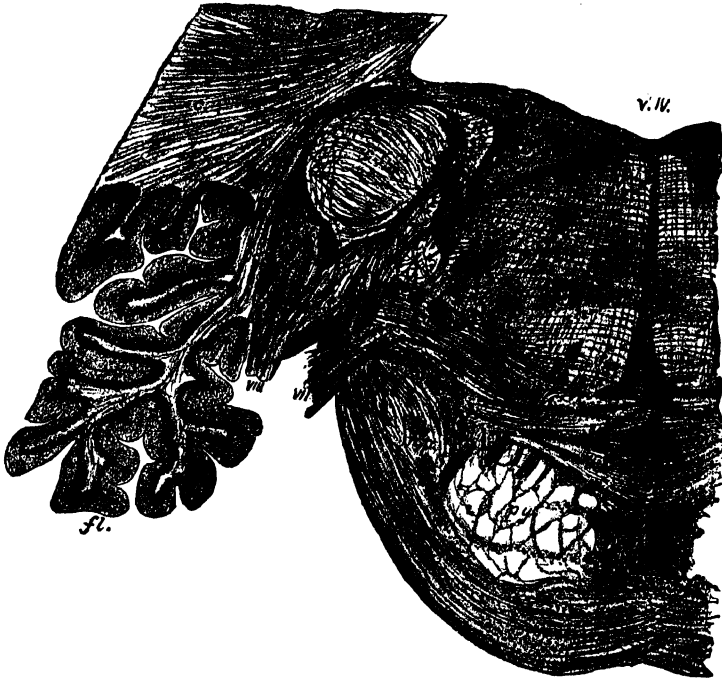


FIG. 564.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE LOWERMOST PART OF THE PONS.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 4$. Drawn from a photograph.

v.IV., fourth ventricle; *c.*, white matter of cerebellar hemisphere; *c.d.*, corpus dentatum; *fl.*, flocculus; *c.r.*, corpus restiforme; *R.*, bundle of Roller, composed of the descending branches of the vestibular nerve; *D.*, nucleus of Deiters; *VIII.*, issuing root of auditory nerve; *VIII.d.*, principal or dorsal nucleus of the vestibular nerve; *VIII.v.*, nucleus of cochlear nerve; *tr.*, trapezium; *n.tr.*, its nucleus; *f.*, fillet; *p.l.b.*, dorsal longitudinal bundle; *f.r.*, formatio reticularis; *n, n', n''*, various nuclei within it; *V.a.*, descending root of fifth nerve; *s.g.*, substantia gelatinosa; *s.o.*, superior olive; *VII.*, issuing root of facial nerve; *n.VII.*, its nucleus; *VI.*, root-bundles of sixth nerve; *py.*, pyramid-bundles; *n.p.*, nuclei pontis.

The olivary nucleus is no longer seen, but there are one or two small collections of grey matter, more conspicuous in some animals than in man, which lie in the ventral part of the reticular formation, and known as the *superior olivary nucleus*, the *pre-olivary nucleus*, and the *semilunar nucleus* (Cajal). All these nuclei, as well as the nucleus of the trapezium itself, are connected with the fibres of the trapezium which form the central auditory path, the fibres either ending in the nuclei in question or giving off to them numerous collaterals; while from the cells of the nuclei axons pass into the trapezium or into the adjacent lateral part of the fillet. On the other hand,

the superior olive is said to receive some fibres from the posterior colliculi of the corpora quadrigemina. The *nucleus of Deiters*, which begins to appear in the upper part of the medulla oblongata, where it has been already studied (p. 479), extends into the pons Varolii; here it lies near the floor of the fourth ventricle, a little mesial to the restiform body (fig. 564, *D*). The nerve-fibres connected with its cells pass towards the middle line and enter the *dorsal longitudinal bundle*. Here, as already stated, they divide, one branch passing upwards in the bundle and terminating by arborescences chiefly in the opposite oculo-motor nucleus: the other branch extending downwards in the medulla oblongata and cord. In the spinal cord they are found in the ventro-lateral descending tract: fibres from each nucleus of Deiters occur in both of these tracts (E. H. Fraser). They terminate by arborescences in the ventral horn of the spinal cord.

Nerves of the pons Varolii.—The nerves which enter or emerge from the grey matter of this region of the brain are part of the *eighth*, the *seventh*, the *sixth*, and somewhat higher up the *fifth cranial nerves*. Of these the eighth (already considered) and fifth are connected with groups of nerve-cells which occupy the grey matter opposite the external border of the floor of the ventricle; the sixth with a nucleus which is placed in the grey matter of the floor of the ventricle but nearer the middle line, and the seventh with a special nucleus which lies in the *formatio reticularis*.

The seventh or facial nerve and the nerve of Wrisberg (*pars intermedia*).—The motor fibres of the *seventh nerve* arise from the facial nucleus in the *formatio reticularis*. This nucleus is homologous with the nucleus ambiguus seen in sections of the medulla oblongata. It has been shown that the motor fibres to the stapedius arise from the mesial part of the nucleus and then in succession those to the external ear muscles, those to the mouth and face muscles, and, finally, from a group of cells situated dorsally to the rest, the motor fibres supplied to the superior branch of the facial (Marinesco, Van Gehuchten). From the nucleus of origin the fibres first pass obliquely backwards to the floor of the ventricle, then longitudinally upwards for a short distance (figs. 558, 565), and finally bend obliquely forwards and downwards to emerge between the transverse fibres at the side of the pons. None of the fibres of the seventh nerve is derived from the nucleus of the sixth, as has sometimes been thought to be the case. As they curve over that nucleus the fibres of the seventh give off fine branches which cross the raphe; their destination is unknown. The nucleus of the facial receives collaterals from the adjacent sensory tracts in the *formatio reticularis*.

The facial is not a purely motor nerve, but has a ganglion upon it of the spinal type, the *geniculate ganglion*, from which fibres arise (fig. 558, *B*) which pass centrally into the *pars intermedia* of Wrisberg. This last enters the pons between the seventh and eighth nerves, and its fibres bifurcate into ascending and descending branches like other sensory nerves; the descending branches pass into the solitary bundle and end like those of the glossopharyngeal in the upper part of its accompanying grey matter. The peripheral axons of the cells of the geniculate ganglion pass into the large superficial petrosal and chorda tympani—to which they furnish afferent,

probably gustatory, fibres. Other (efferent) fibres pass into the pars intermedia and ultimately into the chorda tympani from certain moderately large cells in the dorsal part of the facial nucleus. These are probably the secretory fibres of the chorda to the submaxillary and sublingual salivary glands.

The sixth nerve (abducens).—The fibres of the *sixth nerve* (figs. 558, 565), which are purely motor, leave the nucleus at its mesial aspect and turn forwards; passing between the pyramid bundles they emerge at the lower margins of the pons. A few fibres are derived from a small *ventral nucleus* lying near the nucleus of the facial; these run at first backwards and then turn forwards to join the others (Van Gehuchten) (fig. 565, *n'.VI.*).

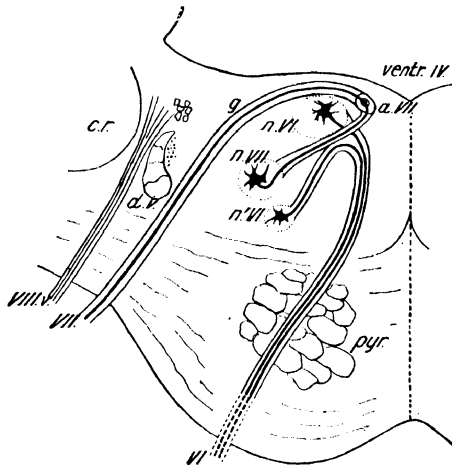


FIG. 565.—PLAN OF THE ORIGIN OF THE SIXTH AND SEVENTH NERVES.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

VI., sixth nerve; *VII.*, seventh nerve; *a.VII.*, ascending part of root of seventh shown cut across near the floor of the fourth ventricle; *g*, genu of seventh; *n.VI.*, chief nucleus of the sixth nerve; *n'.VI.*, accessory nucleus of sixth; *n.VII.*, nucleus of seventh; *d.V.*, descending root of fifth; *pyr.*, pyramid-bundles; *VIII.v.*, vestibular root of eighth nerve; *c.r.*, corpus restiforme; *ventr. IV.*, fourth ventricle.

The **fifth or trigeminal nerve** emerges at the side of the pons in two roots, a small motor and a larger sensory (fig. 567).

The *motor root* is derived partly from fibres which arise in the upper part of the pons and lower part of the mesencephalon from large spherical unipolar nerve-cells lying at the side of the grey matter bounding the Sylvian aqueduct (*accessory or superior motor nucleus of fifth*, fig. 558, *nVms*; fig. 568, *m'n.V*), partly from the *motor nucleus proper* (figs. 558, *nVm*; 568, *m.n.V*) which lies in the grey matter at the lateral edge of the fourth ventricle (figs. 566, 567). As they pass the motor nucleus proper the fibres from the superior or accessory nucleus give off into it a large number of collaterals which ramify between and around its cells.

The fibres of the *sensory root* are derived from the cells of the Gasserian ganglion which are homologous with the cells of the spinal ganglia. These fibres of the sensory root when traced into the pons are found to bifurcate, the *ascending branches* ending in a mass of grey matter (*principal sensory*

nucleus of the fifth, fig. 568, *p.s.n.V.*) lying just lateral to the motor nucleus, while the descending branches trend downwards into the medulla oblongata where they form the descending or spinal root of the fifth (fig. 568, *d.s.V.*), some even reach the upper part of the spinal cord. They lie immediately lateral to and in close connexion with the substantia gelatinosa Rolandi which forms the *inferior sensory nucleus* (fig. 568, *d.s.n.V.*); it is continued

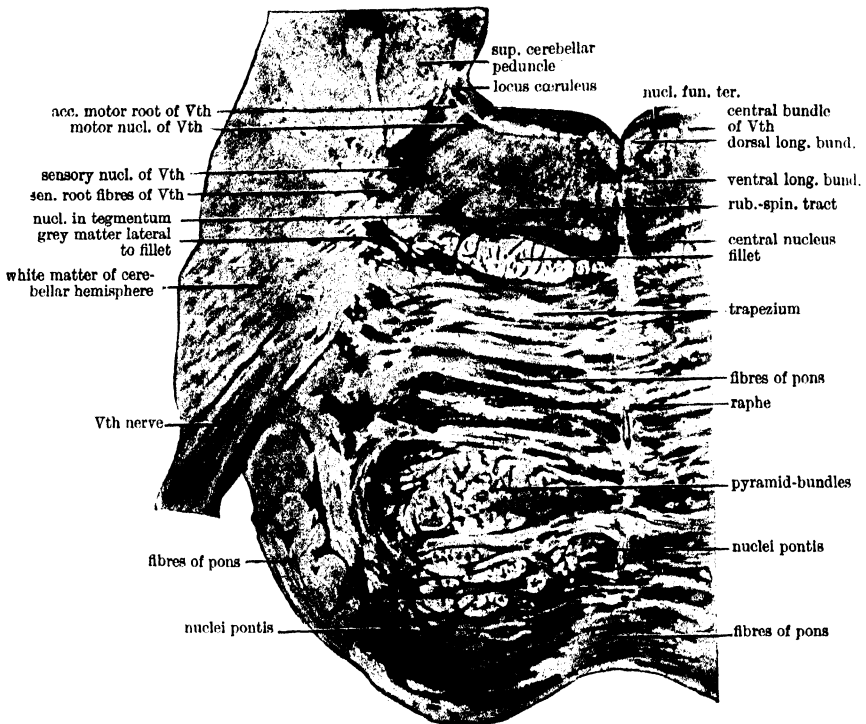


FIG. 566.—SECTION ACROSS THE MIDDLE OF THE PONS VAROLII. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)
× about 4. Photograph.

above into the principal nucleus. The substantia gelatinosa which forms the sensory nucleus of the fifth contains numerous nerve-cells, both small and large; many of the small cells are grouped into nest-like clusters, the *islands of Calleja*. The axons of the larger cells pass for the most part across the raphe to the formatio reticularis of the opposite side, where they reinforce the ascending fibres of the intermediate-fillet, but some ascend in the fillet of the same side; others pass to a special *ascending bundle* of fibres on the opposite side of the raphe lying nearer the floor of the fourth ventricle, and in the tegmentum of the mid-brain lying lateral to the dorsal longitudinal bundle; hence it is continued upwards into the thalamus. Collaterals are given off from these ascending fibres to the adjoining grey matter, and

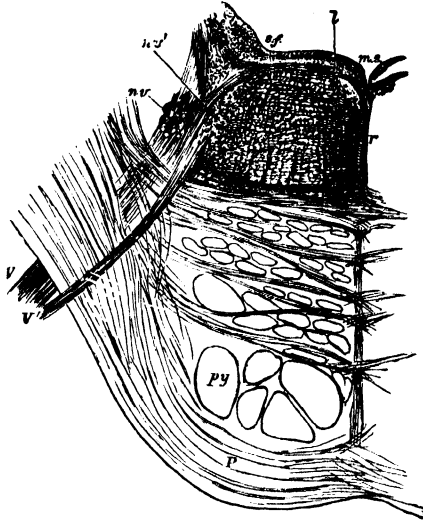


FIG. 567.—SECTION TAKEN SOMEWHAT OBLIQUELY THROUGH THE PONS FOLLOWING THE COURSE OF THE ISSUING ROOTS OF THE FIFTH NERVE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

ms., median sulcus; *l.*, dorsal longitudinal bundle; *s.f.*, substantia ferruginea; *n.v.*, sensory, and *n.v.*, motor nucleus of fifth; *V*, sensory, and *V'*, motor root of fifth; *r*, raphe; *py*, pyramid-bundles; *P*, transverse fibres of middle peduncle of cerebellum.

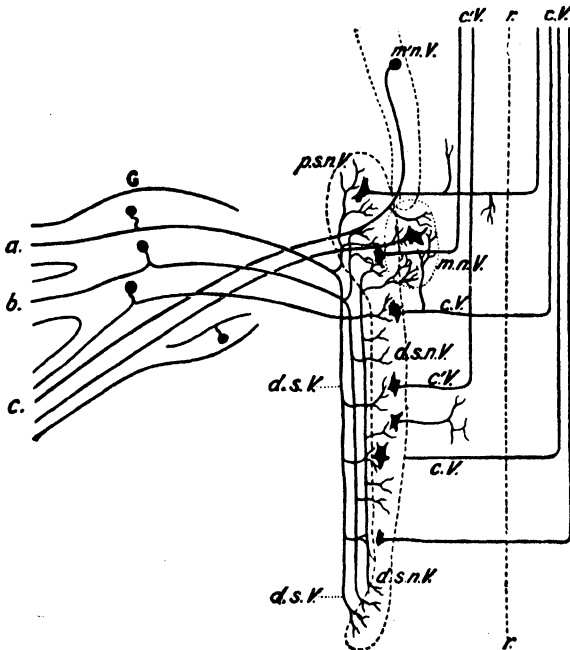


FIG. 568.—PLAN (LONGITUDINAL) OF THE ORIGIN OF THE FIBRES OF THE FIFTH NERVE.

G, Gasserian ganglion; *a*, *b*, *c*, three divisions of the nerve; *m.n.V.*, superior motor nucleus; *m.n.V.*, principal motor nucleus; *p.s.n.V.*, principal sensory nucleus; *d.s.n.V.*, descending sensory nucleus; *d.s.V.*, descending root; *c.V.*, *c'.V.*, central sensory tracts composed of fibres issuing from the sensory nuclei; *r*, plane of the raphe.

especially to the nucleus of the facial nerve. Branches also pass downwards into the *formatio reticularis*.

Tracts in the Pons.—The fibres of the *pyramid-tract* are much more numerous in the pons than in the medulla oblongata. They send numerous collaterals into the grey matter of the nuclei pontis (fig. 569, A.).

2. The *cortico-bulbar tract* lies mesial to the fillet (see p. 492). It consists

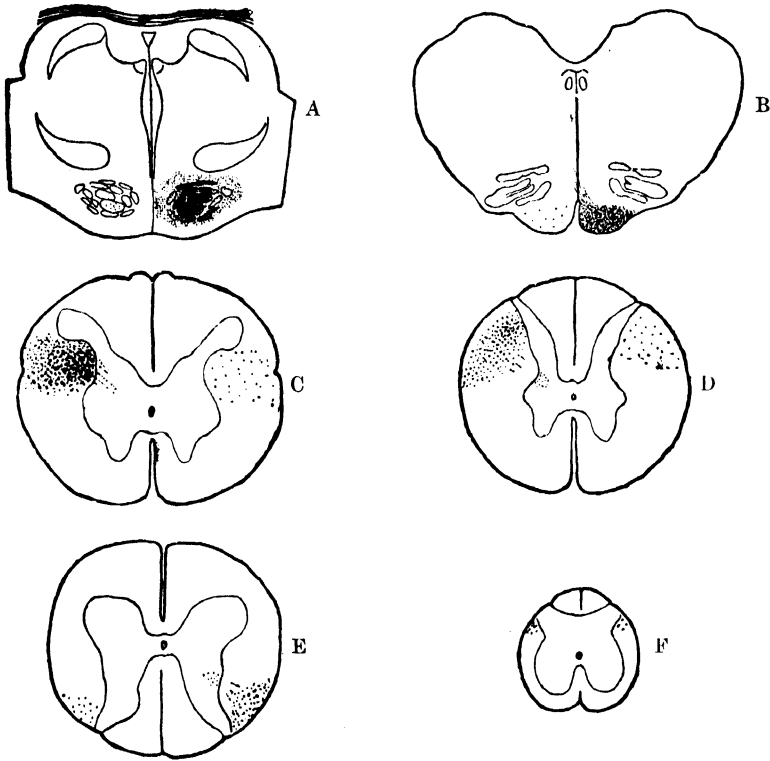


FIG. 569.—SECTION OF PONS (A), MEDULLA OBLONGATA (B), OF CERVICAL (C), THORACIC (D), LUMBAR (E), AND SACRAL (F) REGIONS OF SPINAL CORD OF MONKEY WHICH HAD SUFFERED REMOVAL OF THE PRECENTRAL GYRUS OF THE RIGHT CEREBRAL HEMISPHERE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

The sections are stained by the Marchi method.

of fibres passing from the motor cortex towards the nuclei of the facial and hypoglossal. In the crusta of the mid-brain these fibres lie mesial to the ordinary pyramid-fibres, but they then leave the latter and pass into the ventral part of the tegmentum and are continued down in the *formatio reticularis* into the medulla oblongata.

3. The *dorsal (posterior) longitudinal bundle* forms another very distinct tract. It contains both ascending and descending fibres and runs just ventral to the grey matter of the floor of the fourth ventricle, near the middle line. As already noticed, it connects Deiters' nucleus with the oculomotor nucleus,

the nucleus of the sixth, and the ventral horn-cells of the spinal cord ; it probably receives some of its fibres from the axons of certain large cells of the formatio reticularis.

4. *Monakow's bundle* or the *rubro-spinal tract* has already been seen in the spinal cord (p. 458). Its fibres arise from the cells of the red nucleus of the mid-brain of the opposite side, crossing the raphe in Forel's decussation (p. 496, footnote). In the upper part of the pons it is dorsal to the mesial fillet, but lower down runs in the lateral part of the tegmentum, dorsal to the lateral fillet.

5. *The ventral longitudinal bundle* or *tecto-spinal tract* consists of fibres which arise in the opposite superior quadrigeminal body. These cross the raphe in Meynert's decussation (p. 496), and run down ventral to the dorsal longitudinal bundle, giving off collaterals to the oculomotor nuclei and the nuclei of the fourth and sixth nerves as they descend. Its fibres eventually mix with those of the dorsal longitudinal bundle, and pass into the ventral column of the cord, joining the ventro-lateral descending tract (p. 458).

6. The *ponto-spinal lateral tract* is formed of fibres which arise from large cells of the reticular formation, and run down within the lateral area of this formation in the pons and medulla oblongata to reach the part of the lateral column of the cord which lies between the grey matter and the tracts of Monakow and Gowers. It is, however, mixed here with many fibres of different origin. The destination of its fibres is similar to those of the dorsal and ventral longitudinal bundles, viz., the adjacent grey matter of the ventral horn.

7. The *vestibulo-spinal tract* is composed of fibres derived from the cells of the nuclei of Deiters and Bechterew, and is therefore similar in its origin to the fibres of the dorsal longitudinal bundle. The destination is in part also similar, for the fibres pass below into the ventral root zone of the cord and end in the grey matter of the ventral horn ; but in their course downwards they lie in the lateral part of the medulla oblongata mixed up with those of Monakow's tract and the ponto-spinal tract, as well as with the ascending fibres of Gowers' tract.

8. The *central tract of the tegmentum* (Bechterew) runs in the pons exactly in the middle of the reticular formation of the tegmentum, but in the medulla oblongata it lies more ventrally near the olivary nucleus, beyond which it has not been traced. The origin of its fibres is not certainly known, but appears to be the thalamus ; their destination is the olivary body of the same side (see p. 473, *thalamo-olivary tract*).

9. *Tract of the fillet* (fig. 566).—In the ventral part of the reticular formation is a very well-marked tract of fibres somewhat flattened dorso-ventrally in the pons ; this is the *tract of the fillet*. Its fibres are derived partly from cells in the nuclei of the opposite funiculus gracilis and funiculus cuneatus of the medulla oblongata which have crossed the raphe as internal arcuate fibres and partly from cells in the nuclei which are connected with the terminations of the sensory cranial nerves.

In the mid-brain the fillet splits up into two distinct bundles of fibres termed respectively the *lateral* or *lower* and the *intermediate* or *upper fillet*.

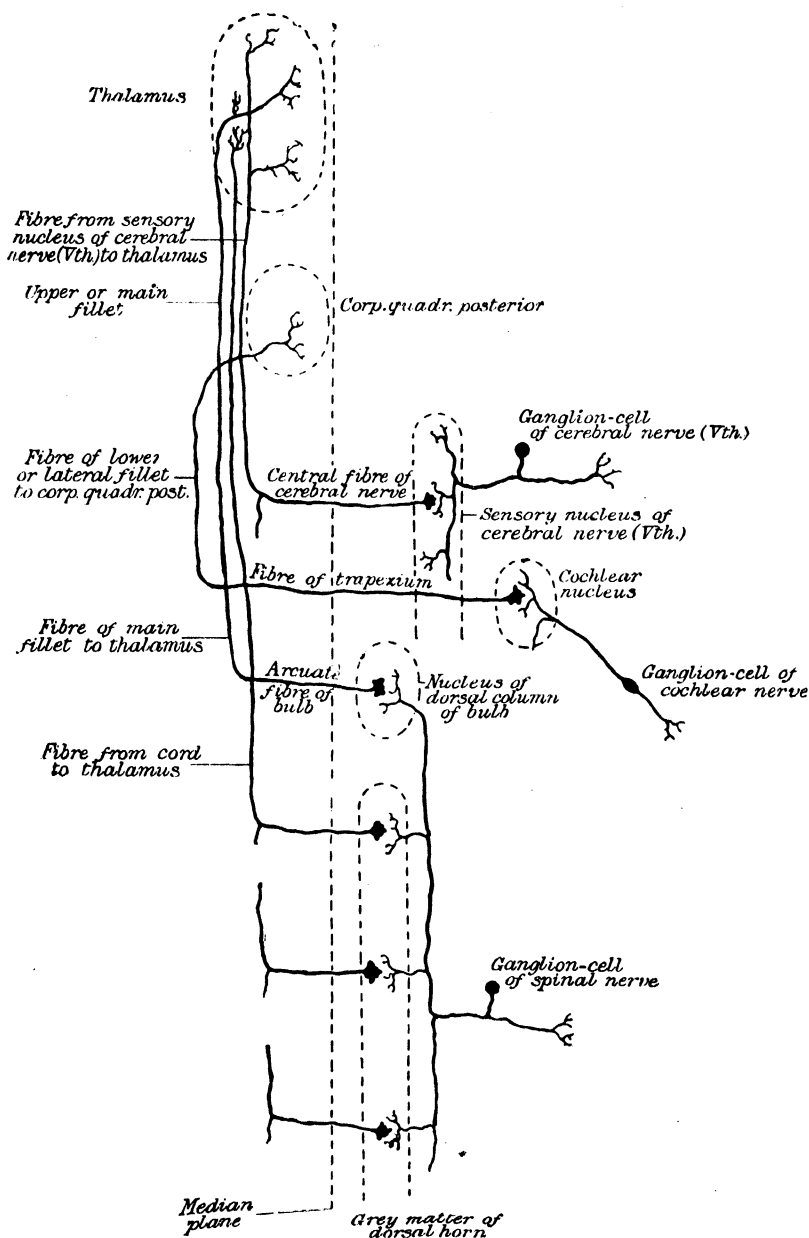


FIG. 570.—DIAGRAM OF SENSORY PATH TO MID-BRAIN AND THALAMUS.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

The fibres of the *lower fillet* are seen at the side of the mesencephalon (*fillet of Reil*), and are traceable partly to the grey matter of the inferior corpora quadrigemina (p. 497) and partly to the mesial geniculate body, in both of which they terminate; they are derived from the sensory nuclei of the medulla oblongata and pons (mainly from the acoustic nuclei). Those of the

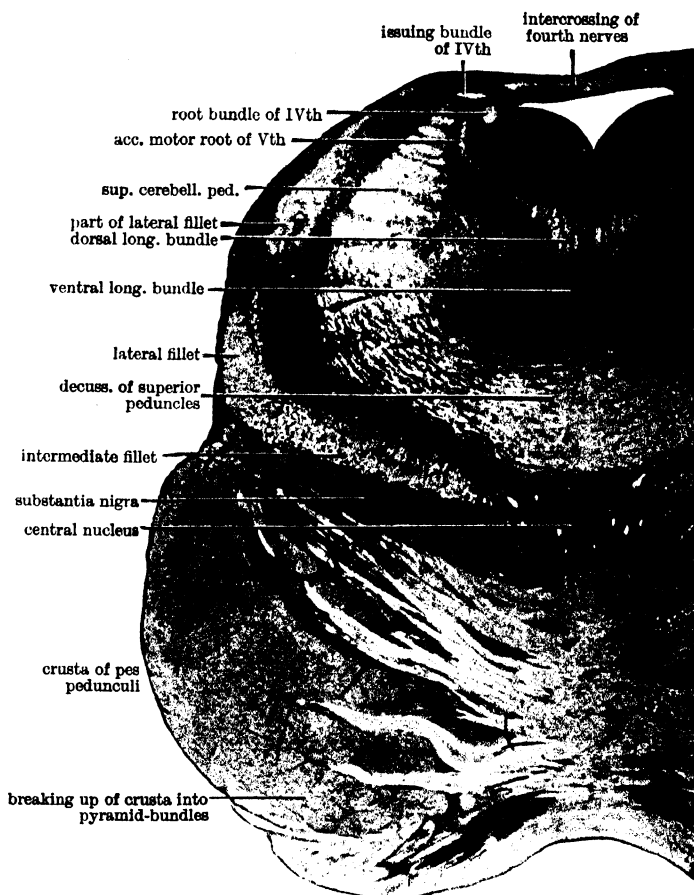


FIG. 571.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE UPPER PART OF THE PONS.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) \times about $3\frac{1}{2}$. Photograph.

upper fillet go to the thalamus (fig. 581); they are chiefly the fibres from the cells of the opposite dorsal columns of the medulla oblongata (fig. 570).

Besides the ascending fibres of the tract of the fillet, this bundle includes a certain number of fibres which degenerate below a section of the tract and are therefore descending or centrifugal: their cells of origin appear to lie in the thalamus; these fibres are situated mesial to the true fillet of which they were formerly considered to be a part (being termed 'mesial' fillet): they form a *thalamo-bulbar tract*. Mesial to the tract just mentioned is a bundle, also consisting of descending fibres, belonging to the system of the pyramid-tract, and

containing fibres which eventually come into relation with certain of the cranial motor nuclei (Hoche). This constitutes the *cortico-bulbar tract*. In the crusta it lies dorso-lateral to the other pyramid-tract fibres.

10. Many of the fibres which continue the sensory path of the cranial nerves upwards lie in the *formatio reticularis* (tegmentum), somewhat dorsal to the tract of the fillet, forming a homologous but not clearly defined tract, which runs up through the pons and mid-brain to terminate in the sub-thalamic region and in the optic thalamus (*central tract of the sensory cranial nerves*). Another ascending tract is the special bundle of fibres from the sensory nucleus of the fifth to the thalamus previously referred to.

At the upper part of the pons (fig. 571) the fourth ventricle narrows gradually towards the Sylvian aqueduct, and above on each side of it two considerable masses of longitudinal white fibres make their appearance. These are the *superior peduncles of the cerebellum*. They tend, as they pass forwards, gradually to approach the middle line; immediately below and in the region of the posterior colliculi of the corpora quadrigemina, they pass across this, decussating with one another, to enter the *formatio reticularis* of the opposite side.

The fibres of the superior cerebellar peduncles take origin



FIG. 572.—THE CORPORA QUADRIGEMINA AND NEIGHBOURING PARTS OF THE BRAIN. (Edinger from G. Retzius.)

Brach. ant. cerebelli, the superior cerebellar peduncles, between them the anterior medullary velum partly covered by the lingula; *Tr. spino-cereb. ventr.*, tract of Gowers curving round the peduncle; *lemniscus*, the lateral fillet; *N. trochl.*, fourth nerve; *N. V.*, fifth nerve.

in the cerebellum, emerging from its dentate nucleus, from the cells of which they are derived. They cross the raphe in the mid-brain and terminate in the red nucleus of the (opposite) tegmentum; though some of them give off a descending branch within the peduncle after crossing, the destination of which is not known.

The *ventro-lateral ascending tract* of the spinal cord (p. 459) is continued up in the lateral column of the medulla oblongata dorso-lateral to the olive and through the ventral part of the pons Varolii lateral to the pyramid-bundles, but at about the level of the exit of the fifth nerve many of its fibres begin to pass obliquely towards the dorso-lateral part of the pons where the superior cerebellar peduncle is emerging from the cerebellar hemisphere. The tract in question (*ventral spino-cerebellar tract*) now curves over the lateral aspect of this peduncle (fig. 572, *Tr. spino-cereb. ventr.*), and

then takes a sharp backward turn, passing over the dorsal aspect of the peduncle to enter the middle lobe of the cerebellum in the superior medullary velum.

THE MID-BRAIN OR MESENCEPHALON.

In sections across the mesencephalon (figs. 574, 575, 577) the upward continuity of the parts which have already been described in the lower nerve-centres can still in great measure be traced.

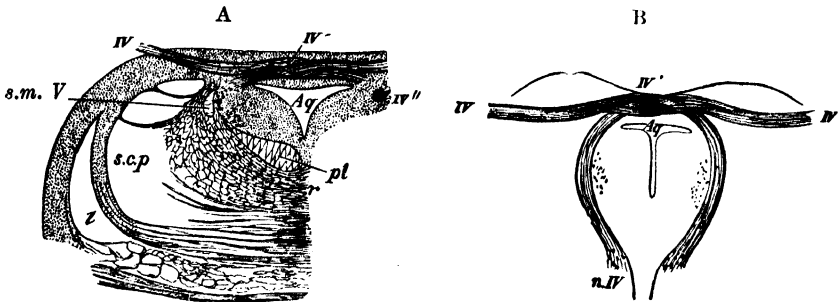


FIG. 573.—SECTION THROUGH THE ORIGIN OF THE FOURTH NERVE. (Schwalbe.)

A, transverse section at the place of emergence of the nerve-fibres. B, oblique section carried along the course of the bundles from the nucleus of origin to the place of emergence. Aq, Sylvian aqueduct, with its surrounding grey matter; IV, the nerve-bundles emerging; IV', decussation of the nerves of the two sides; IV'', a bundle passing by the side of the aqueduct to emerge a little lower down; n.V., nucleus of the fourth nerve; l, lateral fillet; s.c.p., superior cerebellar peduncle; s.m.V., superior motor root of the fifth nerve; pl., dorsal longitudinal bundle; r, raphe.

The **Sylvian aqueduct** (fig. 575, *Sy*), with its lining of ciliated epithelium, represents the central canal of the cord and the fourth ventricle of the medulla oblongata. In the grey matter which surrounds it (*central grey*

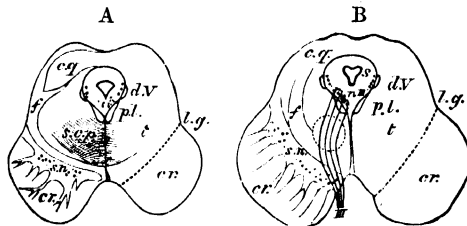


FIG. 574.—OUTLINE OF TWO SECTIONS ACROSS THE MESENCEPHALON. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Natural size.

A, through the middle of the inferior corpora quadrigemina. B, through the region of the superior corpora quadrigemina. cr, crusta; sn., substantia nigra; t, tegmentum; s, Sylvian aqueduct, with its surrounding grey matter; c.q., grey matter of the corpora quadrigemina; l.g., lateral groove; p.l., dorsal longitudinal bundle; d.V., superior root of the fifth nerve; s.c.p., superior cerebellar peduncle; f, lateral fillet; III, third nerve; n.III, its nucleus. The dotted circle in B indicates the situation of the tegmental or red nucleus.

matter) there is seen in all sections of the region a group of large nerve-cells forming the *oculomotor nucleus* lying ventrally on each side of the middle line, close to the reticular formation. From the lowest cells of this column the root-bundles of the fourth nerve arise at the lower part of the mesencephalon and pass obliquely backwards and downwards around the central

grey matter, decussating with those of the opposite side to emerge just above the pons Varolii (figs. 571, 573). Higher up, in the region of the anterior colliculi, the bundles of the third nerve spring from a continuation of the same nucleus (fig. 577, *n.III*), and these pass forwards and downwards with a curved course through the reticular formation, to emerge at the mesial

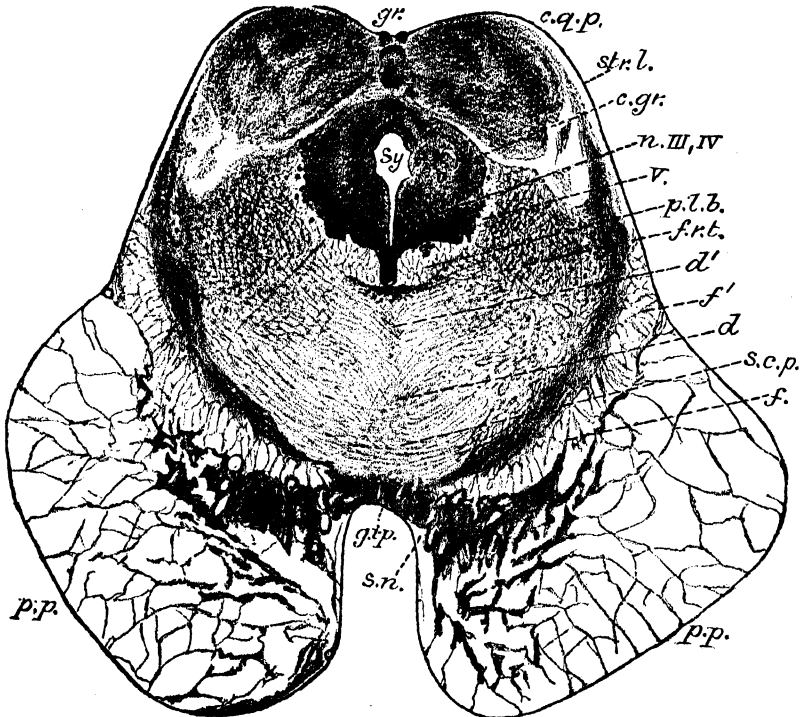


FIG. 575.—SECTION ACROSS THE MID-BRAIN THROUGH THE POSTERIOR PAIR OF CORPORA QUADRIGEMINA. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) \times about $3\frac{1}{2}$. Drawn from a photograph.

Sy, aqueduct of Sylvius; *c.gr.*, central grey matter of the aqueduct; *n.III, IV*, group of cells forming part of the conjoined nuclei of the third and fourth nerves; *c.q.p.*, one of the posterior corpora quadrigemina; *gr.*, median groove separating it from that of the opposite side; *str.l.*, stratum lemnisci (layer of the fillet), forming its superficial layer; *f.*, upper fillet; *f'*, lateral fillet; *V*, accessory motor root of fifth nerve; *p.l.b.*, dorsal longitudinal bundle; *f.r.t.*, formatio reticularis tegmenti; *d.d'*, decussating fibres of tegmenta (fountain-decussations of Forel and Meynert respectively); *s.c.p.*, superior cerebellar peduncles, decussating; *p.p.*, pes pedunculi (crusta); *s.n.*, substantia nigra; *g.i.p.*, interpeduncular ganglion.

side of the crusta. According to Van Gehuchten, some of the fibres of the third nerve cross the middle line and emerge with the nerve of the opposite side.

The reticular formation of the pons is continued up into the mesencephalon and is here known as the **tegmentum**. It is composed as before of longitudinal and transverse or arcuate bundles of fibres with much grey matter intermingled. The transverse fibres include the decussating fibres of the *superior peduncles of the cerebellum* (fig. 573, A; *s.c.p.*), which are derived from cells in the dentate nucleus of the cerebellum, and on reaching the

opposite side bifurcate. Their ascending branches become gradually lost among a number of nerve-cells which collectively constitute what is known as the *red nucleus* or *nucleus of the tegmentum*, whilst the descending branches turn downwards in the reticular formation. But some of the fibres of the superior peduncle go on past the red nucleus to the ventral part of the thalamus. The red nucleus also receives fibres in its lateral aspect derived from the lenticular nucleus of the corpus striatum, and some which are said to come from the cerebral cortex; these fibres form a sort of capsule to the red nucleus before entering it.

Tracts in the tegmentum.—1. *Vestibulo-motor tract; dorsal (posterior) longitudinal bundle.*—This is well marked in the mid-brain, and gives off many collaterals and terminal fibres to the oculomotor nucleus which is immediately dorsal to it. The bundle largely consists of nerve-fibres derived from the cells of Deiters' nucleus (see p. 479), which on reaching the situation of the bundle either on the same or on the opposite side, bifurcate, one branch ascending, the other descending. But it receives fibres from other sources than Deiters' nucleus, *e.g.*, both from large cells of the sensory nucleus of the fifth, and from similar cells in the reticular formation of the medulla oblongata, pons, and mid-brain. All these fibres, like those from Deiters' nucleus, bifurcate on joining the bundle, one branch passing upwards, the other downwards. Some fibres of the bundle are of different origin from the rest, arising beyond the oculomotor nucleus. These are very fine; they are descending fibres, and are traceable from the cells of the *nucleus of the dorsal longitudinal bundle*, which lies in front of the Sylvian aqueduct in the grey matter at the side of the third ventricle. Some of the fibres of the dorsal longitudinal bundle are traceable as far up as the thalamus.

The bundle gives collaterals not only to the oculomotor nucleus (fig. 663, J) but also to the nucleus of the sixth, and probably to the nuclei of other cranial motor nerves. Its descending fibres are eventually continued down the spinal cord in the ventro-lateral descending tract, and give off terminals and collaterals to the ventral horn.

2. *Rubro-spinal tract; Monakow's bundle.*—The cells of the red nucleus send their axons downwards and forwards. They form Monakow's bundle or the *rubro-spinal tract* which is continued below into the spinal cord.

3. *Tecto-spinal tract; ventral longitudinal bundle.*—Other longitudinal fibres of the tegmentum are those of the *fasciculus retroflexus* of Meynert lying mesially to the red nucleus and passing obliquely downwards and inwards from the ganglion of the habenula to the interpeduncular ganglion of the opposite side, and the *bundle of Münzer*, which passes from the posterior tubercle downwards into the lateral part of the reticular formation of the pons. But the longest and most important is the *ventral longitudinal bundle*, which passes lateral to the red nucleus and partly through it. Although the red nucleus receives many collaterals from this bundle, the fibres of the bundle are derived, according to Held and Cajal, from cells in the grey matter of the opposite anterior tubercle of the corpora quadrigemina; these cells send their axons sweeping round the central grey matter just central to the dorsal longitudinal bundle to cross in the raphe, where they form the *fountain-*

like decussation of Meynert (fig. 575 ; d').¹ The downward continuation of the tecto-spinal tract has already been studied, but it should be stated that the prolongation of its fibres into the ventral column of the spinal cord is denied by Van Gehuchten, who traces them only as far as the medulla oblongata.

4. *Tract of the fillet*.—The continuation upwards of the fillet is also apparent in this part of the brain. Some of its fibres are seen passing in an oblique manner to the side of the mesencephalon, to enter the grey matter of the prominences of the posterior corpora quadrigemina.

This part is the *lower* or *lateral fillet*, formed chiefly by fibres derived from the accessory auditory, the inferior olivary, and the trapezoid nuclei of the opposite side, forming the *central acoustic tract*. Its fibres send numerous collaterals to the posterior tubercle (fig. 576) and a few to the anterior, and end by ramifying among the cells of the mesial geniculate body (Cajal). In its course it traverses the *nucleus of the fillet*. This consists of cells interpolated among its fibres (the greater number in the lower part near the superior olive); among the cells some of the fibres and many collaterals from them end. The axons of the cells trend inwards towards the raphe. The *upper fillet* is continued upwards in the ventral part of the tegmentum towards the thalamus.

Lateral and ventral to the tegmentum is seen on either side the white mass known as the *crusta* or *pes pedunculi* (figs. 571 and 575, *p.p.*). This is formed by longitudinally coursing bundles of fibres lying on the ventral aspect of each half of the mesencephalon, and diverging above into the internal capsule of the cerebral hemisphere.

The fibres of the crusta are continued below into the so-called 'pyramid-bundles' of the pons—which contain, as we have seen, many other fibres than those of the pyramid tract. This is also the case with the bundles of the crusta; in which the pyramid-tract proper—composed of fibres emanating from the precentral and paracentral gyri—is confined to the middle three-fifths (this, however, includes many cortico-pontine fibres), whilst the mesial fifth is mainly occupied by fibres passing from the lower frontal region to the pons, carrying impulses to the nuclei of the facial and hypoglossal; and the lateral fifth by fibres the origin and function of which are not certainly known. But it is probable that these last fibres are connected with the regions of the hemisphere behind the Rolandic fissure, especially, perhaps, with the temporal and occipital regions, and are passing from cells of those parts to end in the nuclei of the pons.

Substantia nigra.—The crusta is separated from the tegmentum by a layer of grey matter containing a number of very deeply pigmented nerve-cells (*substantia nigra*; fig. 575). The substantia nigra receives many collaterals from the adjacent pyramid bundles of the crusta (Sutherland Simpson). The crusta and tegmentum, together with the intervening substantia nigra, constitute the *cerebral peduncle* or *crus cerebri*.

¹ This is not to be confounded with the *fountain-like decussation of Forel* (fig. 575, d), which lies nearer the ventral part of the tegmentum, and is partly formed by the intercrossing of Monakow's bundle and partly by v. Gudden's bundle coming from the corpora mammillaria to end in the tegmentum.

Interpeduncular ganglion.—Between the cerebral peduncles, just where they diverge from the mass of transverse fibres of the pons, is seen close to the ventral surface of the brain a small mass of grey matter containing a large number of small nerve-cells with large and irregular dendrons, and axons which are directed dorsally into the tegmentum. This is the *interpeduncular ganglion* (fig. 575, *g.i.p.*). It receives on each side the ending of the *fasciculus retroflexus* of Meynert, coming from the *ganglion of the habenula*, a collection of nerve-cells near the superior and mesial part of the thalamus, close to the commencement of the third ventricle. Both these ganglia are much better marked in many of the lower animals than in man.

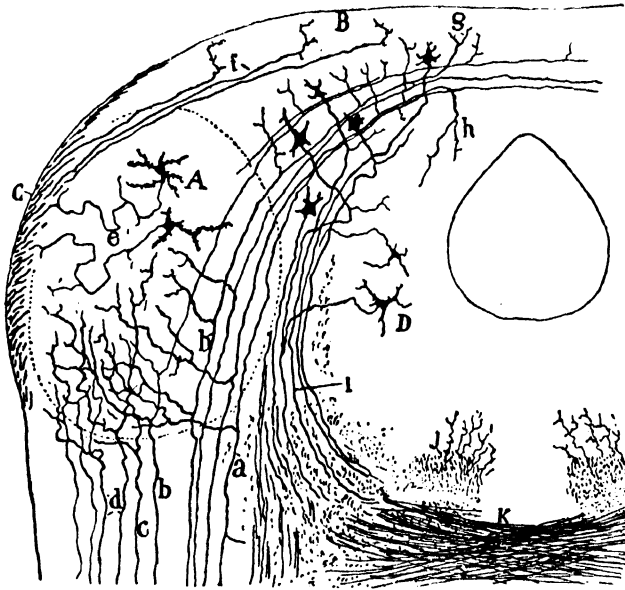


FIG. 576.—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE GENERAL STRUCTURE OF THE POSTERIOR CORPORA QUADRIGEMINA. (Cajal.)

A, principal mass of grey matter; B, C, cortical layer; D, grey matter around Sylvian aqueduct; K, decussation of superior peduncles of cerebellum; a, b, c, d, fibres of central acoustic path from lateral fillet; e, axons from cells of principal nucleus passing towards brachium; f, fibres from brachium passing into superficial layer; g, fibres from fillet passing into superficial layer; h, a fibre of fillet passing to central grey matter of aqueduct; J, collaterals from dorsal longitudinal bundle passing to oculomotor nucleus; I, axons of cells in superomesial part of colliculus curving round grey matter of aqueduct and forming the deep white layer.

CORPORA QUADRIGEMINA.

The prominences (*colliculi* or *tubercles*) of the corpora quadrigemina are formed mainly of grey matter. Connected laterally with each are bundles of white fibres forming the *brachia* of the geniculate bodies.

The **posterior (inferior) colliculi** consist of a *grey centre* enclosed by *superficial* and *deep white layers* (figs. 575, 576). The superficial white layer is derived mainly from the brachium. The fibres of the fillet divide as they approach the colliculus; one branch enters its grey matter while the other passes to the mesial geniculate body. In animals with a highly developed

sense of hearing all these parts are proportionately well developed. The deep white layer is derived from cells of the grey centre, but many of the cells of the latter send their axons towards the superficial layer. The destination of the fibres of the deep white layer is not certainly known; some pass over the central grey matter of the aqueduct to the opposite side.

In the **anterior (superior) colliculi** four layers can be distinguished (fig. 578), viz.: superficially, a *thin white layer* (A), containing nerve-fibres and a few

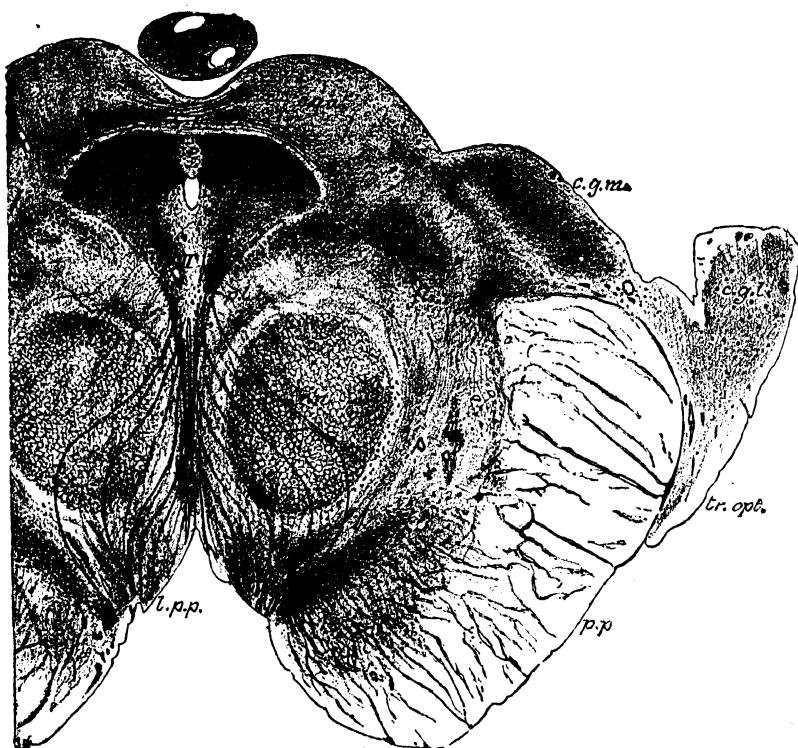


FIG. 577.—SECTION ACROSS THE MID-BRAIN THROUGH THE ANTERIOR CORPORA QUADRIGEMINA. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) \times about $3\frac{1}{2}$. Drawn from a photograph.

c.p., posterior commissure of brain; *gl.pt.*, pineal gland; *c.g.a.*, grey matter of one of the anterior corpora quadrigemina; *c.g.m.*, mesial geniculate body; *c.g.l.*, lateral geniculate body; *tr. opt.*, optic tract; *p.p.*, crus or pes pedunculi; *p.l.b.*, dorsal longitudinal bundle; *fl.*, upper fillet; *r.n.*, red nucleus; *III*, issuing fibres of third nerve; *n.III*, its nucleus; *l.p.p.*, locus perforatus posticus; *Sy.*, Sylvian aqueduct; *s.n.*, substantia nigra.

nerve-cells disposed parallel to the surface; next to this a *grey cap* (B), containing many and various nerve-cells among which the terminations of the optic nerve (*h, h*) ramify; below this the *optic nerve layer* (C), which is formed of antero-posteriorly running fibres derived from the optic tract, and ending as just stated for the most part in the grey layer. The optic nerve layer also contains some nerve-cells. Lastly there is a deep white layer, the so-called *deep medulla*, of transversely disposed fibres (D) derived partly from the fillet but comprising many fibres which come from the cells of the colliculus itself, and a few which are continued up from the ventro-lateral column of the

spinal cord. This deep layer also contains a number of large dendritic cells among the fibres. The superior corpora quadrigemina receive through their brachia some of the fibres of the optic tracts, which in mammals enter the grey matter at the middle of its thickness and traverse it from before back, so that in transverse sections of the mid-brain they appear cut across. In birds they form a superficial white stratum covering the grey matter; this white stratum is not homologous with the superficial stratum of mammals, for the fibres in the latter are not derived directly from the optic tract. The optic fibres are all derived from nerve-cells in the retina, and as they traverse the stratum opticum they pass obliquely into the grey matter (in a ventral

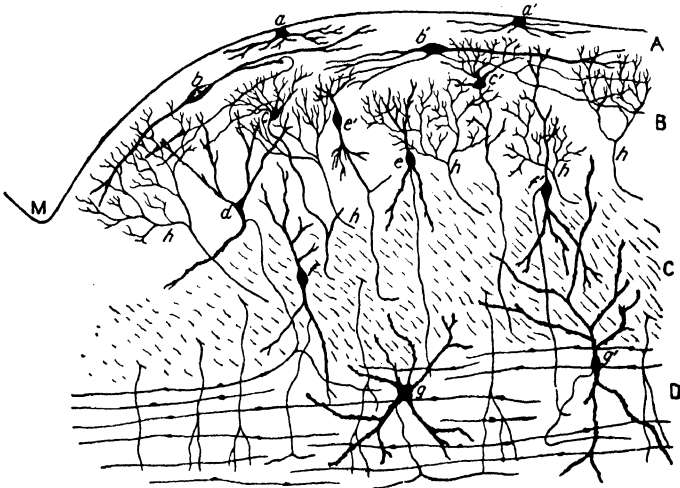


FIG. 578.—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE CHARACTERS OF THE CELLS IN THE GREY MATTER OF THE ANTERIOR CORPORA QUADRIGEMINA. (After Cajal.)

M, portion of dorsal median groove; A, superficial white layer; B, grey cap; C, optic fibre layer (upper grey-white layer); D, layer of the fillet (lower grey-white layer).

a, a', marginal nerve-cells; their axons are not represented; *b, b'*, horizontal spindle-shaped cells of Golgi's type II.; *c, c'*, small cells with much-branched dendrons and an axon extending to the optic fibre layer; *d, e, e'*, spindle and stellate cells of the grey cap, and *f, f'*, cells of the stratum opticum, sending their axons into the layer of the fillet; *g, g'*, cells of the layer of the fillet; *h, h'*, fibres of the optic nerve layer ending in the grey and superficial white layers.

direction in birds, in a dorsal direction in mammals) and end in arborisations among its cells. The cells of the grey matter are very various in form and size (fig. 578). Most of their axis-cylinder processes pass ventralwards. The destination of all is not certainly known, but some form the commencement of the ventral longitudinal bundle of the opposite side, and others run down on the same side towards the pons Varolii, intermingled with the ascending fibres of the fillet. A certain number of fibres which take origin in the cells of the anterior colliculi course over the central grey matter which surrounds the Sylvian aqueduct and sweep round this towards the fillet tract of the opposite side. These *commissural fibres* are continuous in front with those of the posterior commissure.

The nerve-fibres of the optic nerve and optic tract do not all enter the corpora quadrigemina. Some end in grey matter between the superior

colliculi and the thalamus, the pretectal region, but in mammals the great majority (80 per cent. according to v. Monnakow) pass into the lateral geniculate bodies.

As has been stated, many arcuate fibres issue from the grey matter of the corpora quadrigemina and pass obliquely downwards into the ventral part of the mesencephalon encircling the central grey matter. These fibres intercross in the raphe, where they constitute the fountain-decussation of Meynert (p. 496), and after crossing constitute the main mass of the ventral longitudinal bundles. These are continued into the ventral columns of the spinal cord; they give off collaterals to the motor nuclei of the eye-muscles, and probably to the motor nuclei generally. Other fibres which appear to belong to the same *tecto-spinal* system are traceable as a distinct tract into the lateral column of the cord (see p. 459).

In the cat, the anterior corpora quadrigemina receive a number of fibres from the pyramid-tract in the crusta of the same side, a few crossing over the aqueduct to the opposite colliculus (Boyce, Sutherland Simpson). But in most animals the fibres which pass from the cortex cerebri to the corpora quadrigemina enter these bodies through their respective brachia.

No fibres are given off from the cells of the corpora quadrigemina to the cortex cerebri.

Posterior (dorsal) commissure.—Immediately in front of the corpora quadrigemina, visible in the roof of this part of the mid-brain, is the *posterior (dorsal) commissure*. This consists of fibres which arise in a nucleus at each side of the Sylvian aqueduct, pass across the middle line dorsal to the central grey matter, and then turn ventralwards and caudalwards in the tegmentum lateral to the dorsal longitudinal bundle, which is partly reinforced by the fibres in question.

NERVES OF MID-BRAIN.

The optic nerves.—The only sensory nerves which are immediately connected with the mid-brain are the *second* or *optic*. These fibres take origin from the large nerve-cells of the ganglionic layer of the retina. Each optic nerve leaves the globe of the eye at its posterior aspect, passes through the optic foramen to the base of the brain, and joins the nerve of the opposite side to form the *optic chiasma* (fig. 583). Of the fibres which enter the chiasma in man, those from the inner (or nasal) two-thirds of the retina cross to the optic tract of the opposite side, while the remaining third, comprising the fibres from the temporal part of the retina, pass along the lateral border of the chiasma to the tract on the same side. In the optic tracts they are continued to the parts of the brain where they have their terminal arborescences, viz., the external (lateral) geniculate bodies, the pretectal region, and the anterior corpora quadrigemina. In all vertebrates except mammals the decussation is complete in the optic chiasma. In the rabbit it is almost complete, but a few of the fibres of the optic nerve bifurcate on reaching the chiasma; the branches pass one into each optic tract (Cajal). There are more uncrossed fibres in man than in any other mammal.

The fibres which pass to the mid-brain run over or through the pulvinar of the optic thalamus to reach their destination and are much finer than those which pass to the geniculate bodies. The latter are alone concerned in vision, since the lateral corpus geniculatum is directly connected with the usual cortex in the occipital lobe, while no such direct connexion obtains between that cortex and the mid-brain (fig. 583). The former are concerned, not with vision, but with reflexes. The path for the reflex constriction of the pupils which occurs when light falls on one or both retinas involves the pretectal region and, in part, the posterior commissure (Magoun and Ranson).

A small bundle of fibres, the *transverse peduncular bundle*, leaves the optic tract as it enters the mid-brain and passes round the cerebral peduncle to lose itself in the mesial part of the tegmentum near the fillet. Its destination appears to be a small nucleus situated near the red nucleus. Its fibres degenerate after enucleation of the opposite eyeball.

The optic tracts and chiasma also contain the fibres of *v. Gudden's commissure*, which connects the posterior corpora quadrigemina; these fibres appear to have no relation to the visual function.

There are present in the optic nerve and tract a few fibres which originate in the nerve centres—where is not known—and terminate in the retina.

Motor nerves.—The motor nerves arising from the mid-brain are the third and fourth. The position of their nuclei and their mode of exit have been already described (p. 493).

THE THALAMENCEPHALON.

The **thalamus** (figs. 579, 580, *th.*), which lies at the side of the third ventricle, and forms part of the floor of the lateral ventricle, is covered on its free surface by a layer of white fibres. Laterally it is bounded by the



FIG. 579.—TRANSVERSE SECTION THROUGH THE BASE OF THE CEREBRUM IN THE REGION OF THE MIDDLE COMMISSURE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Natural size.

c.c., corpus callosum; *f.*, fornix; *n.c.*, nucleus caudatus; *th.*, thalamus; *s.t.r.*, subthalamic region; *cr.*, crista passing into internal capsule, *i.c.*; *s.n.*, substantia nigra; *a.e.*, *i.*, various nuclei of thalamus; *w.*, its latticed layer; *n.l.*, nucleus lenticularis; *e.c.*, external capsule; *cl.*, claustrum; *f.*, insula; *m.c.*, middle commissure; above and below it is the third ventricle, communicating above on each side through the foramen of Monro with the lateral ventricle. Below the fornix are seen the choroid plexuses; *s.a.*, stria terminalis; *h.*, hippocampus; *d.*, fascia dentata.

internal capsule. Fibres from the latter pass into the thalamus and serve to connect it with the hemispheres.

The grey matter of the thalamus is partially sub-divided by white laminae into a number of nuclei. The principal nuclei are arranged in three groups, *anterior*, *ventral*, and *upper*. The last of these, found only in mammals, reaches its highest development in man and includes *lateral* and *medial* nuclei.

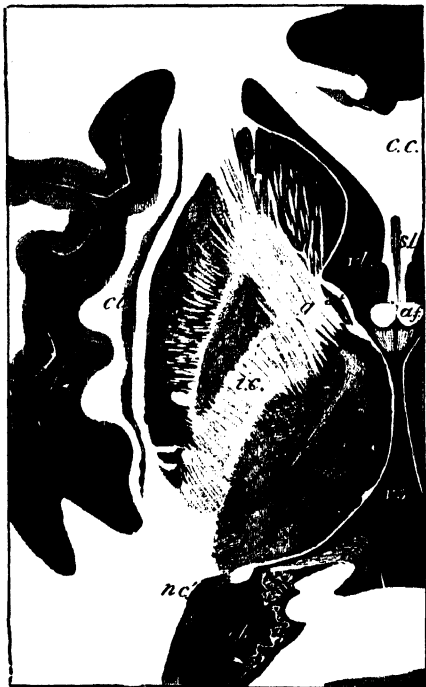


FIG. 580.—HORIZONTAL SECTION THROUGH THE OPTIC THALAMUS AND CORPUS STRIATUM. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Natural size.

v. 3. lateral ventricle, its anterior cornu; c.c., corpus callosum; s.l., septum lucidum; a.f., anterior pillars of the fornix; v.3., third ventricle; th., thalamus; s.t., stria medullaris; n.c., nucleus caudatus, and n.l., nucleus lenticularis of the corpus striatum; i.c., internal capsule; g., its angle or genu; n.c., tail of the nucleus caudatus appearing in the descending cornu of the lateral ventricle; cl., claustrum; I., insula.

The *anterior nuclei* receive fibres from the mammillary bodies (mam-millo-thalamic tract or bundle of Vicq d'Azyr). Their other connexions require further elucidation, but fibres leaving them run to the mammillary bodies and to the gyrus cingularis of the cerebral cortex (Le Gros Clark).

The *ventral nuclei* are developed from a mass of cells which also gives rise to the geniculate bodies. The pars externa of the main ventral nucleus or fillet nucleus is the terminal station for the fibres of the spino-thalamic tract and the medial and trigeminal fillets, which have all crossed the mid-line lower down. It also receives fibres from the cerebellar hemisphere of the opposite side by way of the superior cerebellar peduncle (brachium conjunctivum). In primitive mammals, but probably not in primates, many cortico-thalamic fibres end in the ventral nuclei. The main efferent connexions are with the post-central and pre-central gyri of the cerebral cortex by way of abundant thalamo-cortical radiations (Le Gros Clark). These fibres

form the third and last link in the chain of sensory neurones which constitutes the direct path from sense-organ to cortex. The ventral nuclei also send fibres to the main part of the lateral nucleus, and probably to the caudate nucleus and to the putamen of the lenticular nucleus.

The *upper nuclei* occupy the dorsal part of the thalamus, above the ventral nucleus. Their connexions are extremely difficult to trace, but it seems that they receive no afferent fibres from lower centres except by relays through lower levels of the thalamus. Their efferent fibres do not run to the sensory

projection areas of the cerebral cortex, but rather to the frontal lobe and to the post-sensory areas of the parietal lobe (Le Gros Clark). The *lateral* group of *nuclei* extends backwards to the pulvinar. Its main part is intimately connected with the ventral nucleus and with other elements of the lateral nucleus. It sends fibres to, and receives fibres from, the parietal cortex (Le Gros Clark). From the pulvinar fibres pass both to the parietal lobe and, in close association with the optic radiations from the lateral geniculate body, to the occipital lobe, where they probably end anterior to

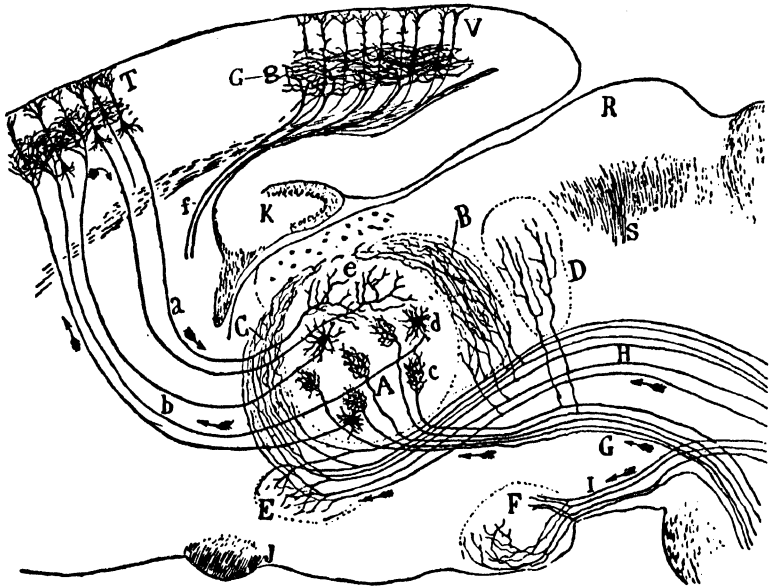


FIG. 581.—DIAGRAM OF THE CONNEXIONS OF THE THALAMUS WITH THE ASCENDING FIBRES OF THE FIFTH NERVE, AND OF THE UPPER FILLET ON THE ONE HAND AND WITH THE CORTEX CEREbRI ON THE OTHER. (R. y Cajal.)

A, B, C, D, E, various nuclei in thalamus: I, afferent fibres passing to mamillary body, F; G, tract of upper fillet ending in A, and giving collaterals to D (posterior nucleus); H, central tract from sensory nucleus of fifth; T, cortex cerebri; V, visual cortex; R, anterior colliculus, J, optic chiasma; S, optic fibres; K, hippocampus.

a, fibres from cortex to thalamus, ending at e; b, fibres from cells in thalamus to cortex; f, fibres from lateral geniculate body and thalamus to visual cortex, ending at g in stria of Gennari.

the *area striata*. The large *medial nuclei* are connected with other thalamic nuclei and with the hypothalamus, and are extensively connected in both directions with the frontal and pre-frontal areas of the cerebral cortex (Le Gros Clark).

Corpora geniculata.—Attached to the thalamus below and behind are the *geniculate bodies* (fig. 582). Both of these at first sight appear to be connected with the optic tract, but only the lateral one actually receives optic fibres, the mesial body receiving fibres from the central auditory tract through the lateral fillet. Of the geniculate bodies the *outer lateral* has a lamellated structure consisting of alternating layers of grey and white matter, the white layers being composed partly of the entering optic fibres and partly of fibres

emerging from the grey matter and passing to the central optic path, while the grey substance contains very numerous nerve-cells amongst which the fibres of the optic tract end in complex arborisations. The cells in each individual lamina of grey matter are all functionally connected with optic nerve fibres from only one of the two eyes (Minkowski, Le Gros Clark). From these cells axons arise and join a bundle of fibres which enters the white

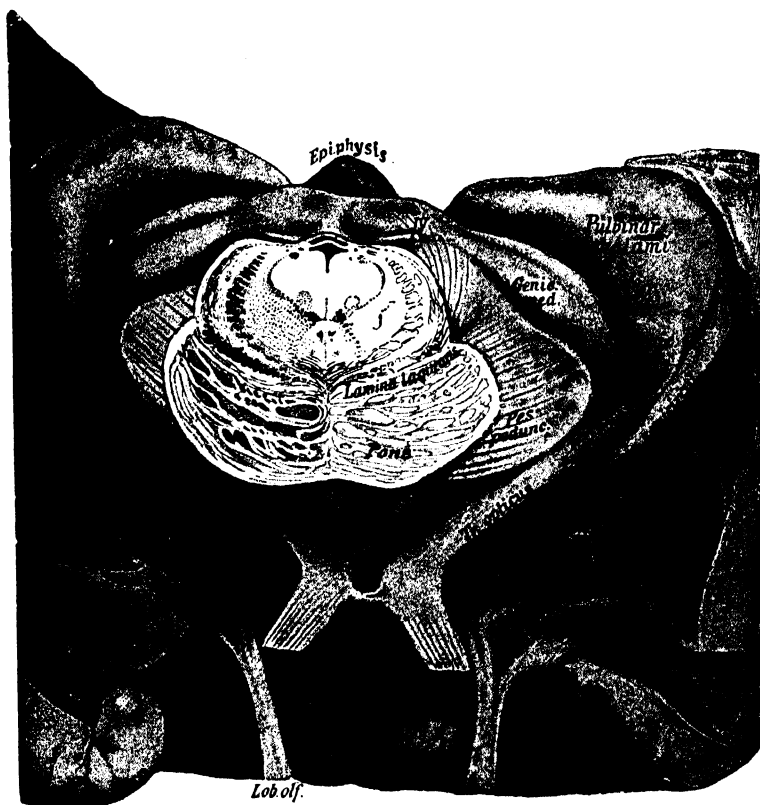


FIG. 582.—FIGURE SHOWING THE OLFACTORY TRACTS AND THEIR ROOTS, THE OPTIC CHIASMA AND OPTIC TRACTS, THE GENICULATE BODIES AND THE PULVINAR THALAMI. (Edinger.)

The pons is cut through at the anterior part, and the section shows the Sylvian aqueduct, the fillet (*lamina laquearis*), superior cerebellar peduncles, etc. The corpora mammillaria are partly concealed by the pons; between and in front of them is seen the infundibulum.

matter of the hemisphere above and along with the internal capsule, and passes to the visual area of the cortex (optic radiations). Some of the fibres from the lateral geniculate body, as they enter the visual tract, send branches downwards towards the tegmentum. Others go to the ventral nucleus of the thalamus and the pulvinar.

The cells of the *mesial geniculate body* are collected into two main nuclei, dorsal and ventral. Most of the cells are small, but at one part there is a

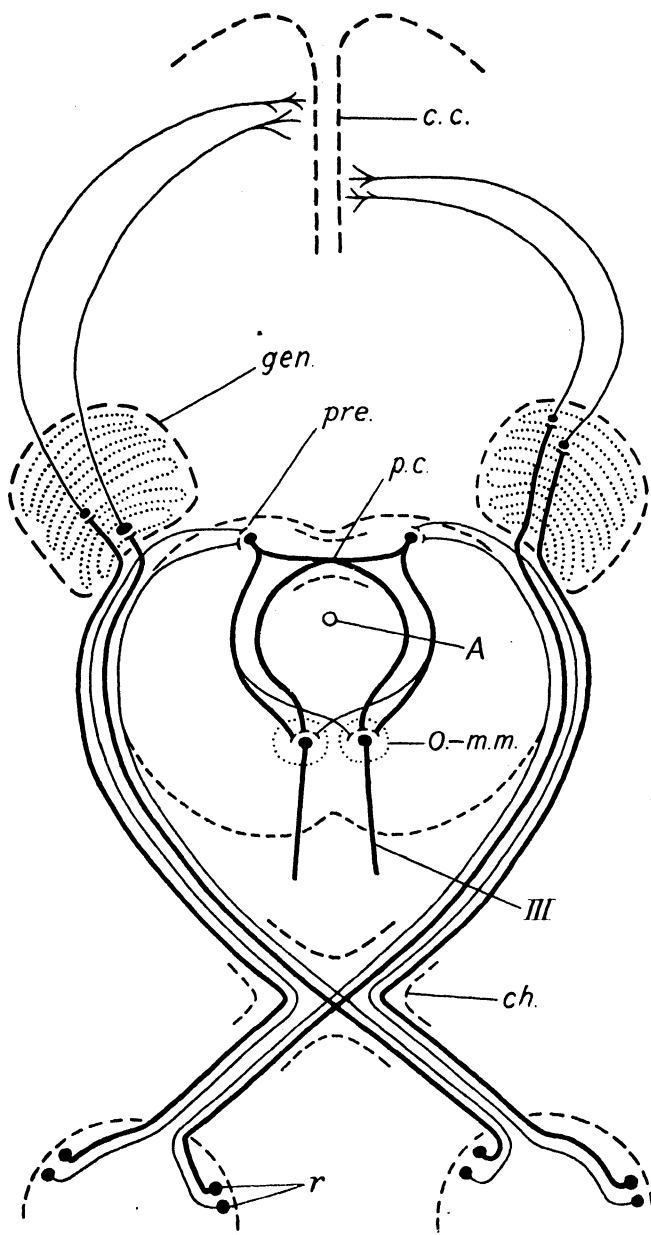


FIG. 583.—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE PROBABLE COURSE AND CONNEXIONS IN HIGHER MAMMALS OF THE OPTIC NERVE FIBRES SUBSERVING VISION AND THE LIGHT REFLEX OF THE PUPIL. (R. S. Creed.)

Fibres from four pairs of corresponding points in the two retinas are shown. Two pairs of thick fibres end in the lateral geniculate bodies and are thence relayed to the occipital cortex. Two pairs of finer fibres pass to the pretectal region of the mid-brain. Thence impulses are carried to the pupillo-motor cells of both oculomotor nuclei by means of a partial decussation in the posterior commissure. A smaller decussation also occurs ventral to the central grey matter.

r, ganglion cells of retina; *ch*, optic chiasma; *III*, IIIrd nerve; *O.-m.m.*, oculomotor nucleus; *A*, aqueduct of Sylvius; *p.c.*, posterior commissure; *pre*, pretectal region; *gen.*, lateral geniculate body; *c.c.*, calcarine cortex.

group of large cells. The axons appear to pass through the brachium and eventually to the cortex—chiefly to that of the temporal lobe.

The **ganglion of the habenula** (fig. 584, *g'*) is a collection of nerve-cells which lies at the posterior part of the thalamus on each side, near the roof of the third ventricle. This ganglion receives on the one hand the fibres of the *habenula* or *stria medullaris*, and on the other gives off from its cells the fibres

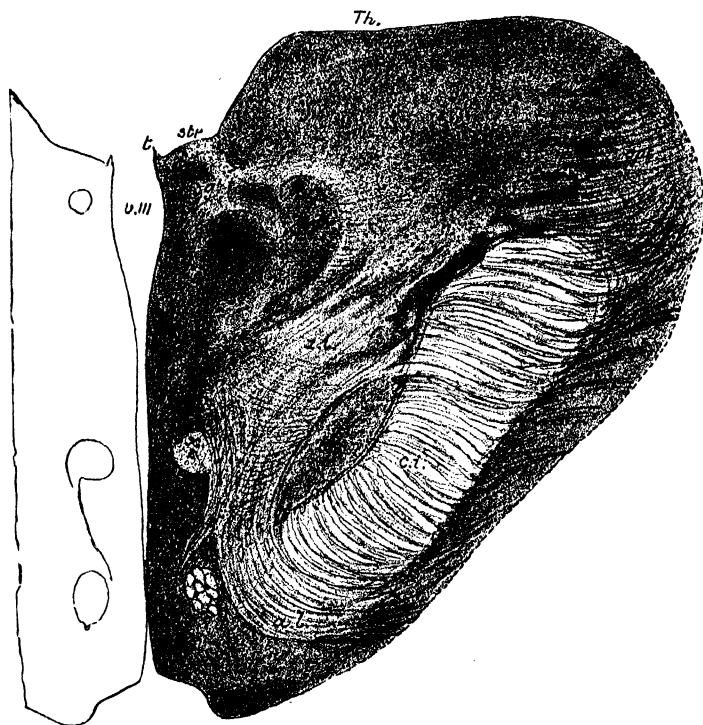


FIG. 584.—SECTION TAKEN OBLIQUELY THROUGH THE THALAMUS AND INTERNAL CAPSULE SHOWING SOME OF THE STRANDS OF FIBRES OF THE SUBTHALAMUS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 2\frac{1}{2}$. Drawn from a photograph.

Th., thalamus; *v.iii*, third ventricle; *t.*, tænia, or attachment of epithelial roof of ventricle; *str.*, stria medullaris or habenula; *g'*, ganglion of the habenula; *n.t.*, mesial nucleus of thalamus; *opt.*, optic fibres passing into pulvinar of thalamus; *z.i.*, zona incerta, from which fibres are seen emerging and sweeping as the *ansa lenticularis*, *a.l.*, round the internal capsule, *c.i.*, to pass toward the lenticular nucleus; *c.s.*, corpus subthalamicum; *f.*, anterior pillar of fornix passing backwards to corpus mammillare; *V.A.*, bundle of Vicq. d'Azyr, passing upwards and forwards from corpus mammillare into thalamus; *g.*, group of nerve cells, probably belonging to the nucleus of the corpus mammillare; *x.*, fasciculus retroflexus.

which form the *fasciculus retroflexus* or *Meynert's bundle* (figs. 575 and 604), passing downwards to the interpeduncular ganglion (p. 497). The two ganglia of the habenulæ are joined by a white commissure.

Hypothalamus.—The *corpora mammillaria* (fig. 582) are seen at the base of the brain immediately below the posterior part of the third ventricle. Each is composed of white matter externally and grey matter internally. Each receives fibres from the anterior pillar of the fornix of the same side (fig. 584); these fibres arise from cells in the hippocampus and end in the

mammillary body. According to Edinger some fibres from the olfactory tract pass directly to it. The axons of its cells bifurcate; one branch, the coarser, passing into the anterior and upper part of the thalamus in the bundle of Vicq d'Azyr, and the other into the tegmentum of the mid-brain in v. Gudden's bundle (fig. 661). The corpora mammillaria form part of the central olfactory apparatus.

At the base of the brain (*i.e.*, the floor of the third ventricle), between the corpora mammillaria and in the neighbourhood of the infundibulum, are several collections of nerve-cells which, it has been suggested, influence the secretion of water by the kidneys, since injury to this part of the brain is liable to be accompanied by diabetes insipidus (Camus and Roussy). It is possible, however, that the result in question is due to injury of the pars tuberalis of the pituitary body. There is good evidence that these hypothalamic nuclei are of great importance in the regulation of body temperature and in other responses involving the autonomic nervous system.

Subthalamic region.—The tegmentum of the crus cerebri is prolonged below the thalamus, and between that and the internal capsule is represented by a mass of grey substance, with longitudinally and obliquely crossing white bundles, known under the name of *subthalamus* (fig. 584). Its deepest part contains a lens-shaped mass of grey matter prolonged forwards from the substantia nigra known as the *corpus sub-thalamicum* of Luys. A mass of fibres sweeps round this and round the internal capsule, passing between the thalamus and the nucleus lenticularis; this being called the *ansa lenticularis*. Its fibres arise, in large part, from the globus pallidus of the lenticular nucleus, and go to the hypothalamus and to the red nucleus (Wilson).

LESSONS XLIV. AND XLV.

THE CEREBELLUM AND CEREBRUM.

1. EXAMINE sections of the cerebellum vertical to the surface, (a) across the direction of the laminae, (b) parallel with the laminae.

2. Examine sections across the whole of one hemisphere of the cerebrum of a monkey or cat passing through the third ventricle.

3. Examine vertical sections of the human cerebral cortex:—one from the central gyri, another from the occipital lobe (calcarine region), another from the superior temporal gyrus and island of Reil, and one from the hippocampal gyrus and hippocampus.

Examine transverse sections of the olfactory tract and bulb.

In all these preparations make outline sketches under a low power of the arrangement of the grey and white matter, and the disposition of nerve-cells in the former. Sketch some of the details under a high power.

The preparations are made in the same way as those of the spinal cord. Other preparations should be made by the Golgi and Cajal methods to exhibit the relation of the cells and fibres to one another. Such preparations have been already partly described (Lesson XVIII.).

THE CEREBELLUM.

The cerebellum is composed of a white centre and a grey cortex (fig. 585). Both extend into all the folds or laminae, so that when the laminae are cut across an appearance is presented of a white arborescence covered superficially by grey matter. The white matter is in largest amount in the middle of each cerebellar hemisphere. There is here present a peculiar wavy lamina of grey matter, similar to that in the olivary body, and known as the *nucleus dentatus* (fig. 585, *n.d.*). This receives on its outer surface numerous nerve-fibres from the cells of Purkinje of the cortex, which end by arborising around its cells. The latter give off axons which, emerging from the hilum of the nucleus, become the fibres of the superior cerebellar peduncles, and for the most part end in the opposite red nucleus (p. 494), but some pass beyond this into the subthalamic region. The dentate nucleus also receives collaterals from fibres of the inferior peduncle (Cajal).

Other isolated grey nuclei lie in the white matter of the middle lobe over the roof of the fourth ventricle and constitute collectively the *nuclei of Stilling*. The most important of these appears to be the *nucleus tecti seu fastigii* (fig. 586). This receives many of the ascending fibres of the vestibular nerve (p. 480) and collaterals from the spino-cerebellar tracts, and gives origin to a bundle of fibres which crosses to the opposite side and descends in the mesial part of the restiform body to the reticular formation of the medulla oblongata.

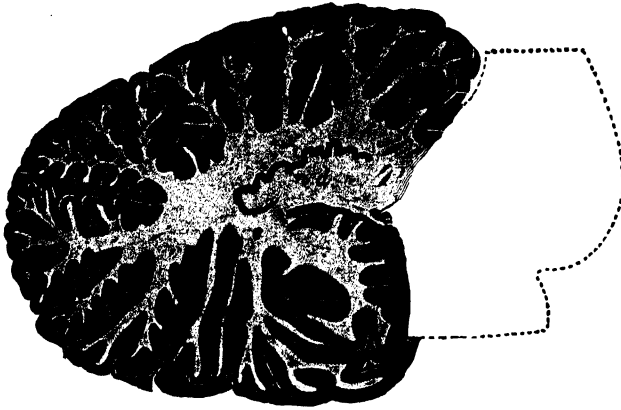


FIG. 585.—SECTION THROUGH ONE OF THE HEMISPHERES OF THE CEREBELLUM, SHOWING THE LAMINATED ARBORESCENT APPEARANCE OF THE GREY MATTER AT THE SURFACE AND THE NUCLEUS DENTATUS (*n.d.*) IN THE MIDDLE OF THE WHITE CENTRE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Photograph. The pons is indicated by a dotted outline.

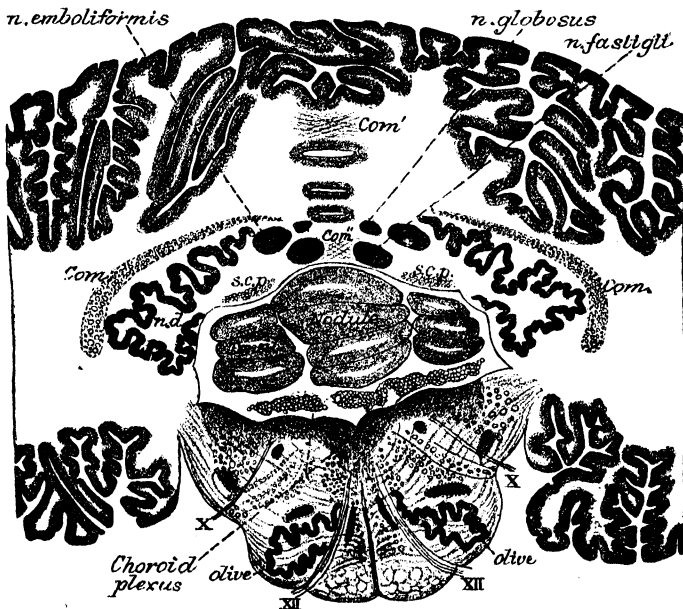


FIG. 586.—SECTION ACROSS THE CEREBELLUM AND MEDULLA OBLONGATA SHOWING THE POSITION OF THE NUCLEI IN THE WHITE CENTRE OF THE CEREBELLUM. (Stilling.)

n.d., nucleus dentatus cerebelli; *s.c.p.*, fibres of superior peduncle; *com*, *com'*, *com''*, commissural fibres; *X*, root-fibres of vagus; *XII*, root-fibres of hypoglossal nerve.

The **grey matter** of the cerebellum appears of essentially similar structure throughout the whole extent of the cortex. It consists of two layers. The *inner or granule layer* (fig. 587, *d*, and fig. 589, B) lies next to the white centre, and is composed of a large number of very small nerve-cells intermingled with a few larger ones and some neuroglia-cells. The *outer or molecular layer* (fig. 587, *b*, and fig. 589, A) is thicker, and is formed chiefly of fine nerve-fibres with small nerve-cells scattered through it. Into its

outer part processes of the pia mater conveying blood-vessels pass vertically. Lying between the two layers of the grey matter is an incomplete stratum of large flask-shaped cells, termed the *cells of Purkinje* (figs. 588, *a*, and 589, *a*). Each of these cells gives off from its base a fine process, the axon, which becomes the axis-cylinder of one of the myelinated fibres of the white centre, while from the opposite pole of the cell large ramified processes (dendrons) extend into the superficial layer of the grey matter.

The dendrons of the cells of Purkinje spread out in planes transverse to the direction of the lamellæ of the organ, so that they present a different appearance according to whether the section is taken along a lamella or across it (compare fig. 589, I and II). These dendrons are invested at their attachment to the cell and, for some extent along their branchings, by a basket-work formed by the terminal arborisations of certain fibres, the *climbing or tendril fibres*, of the medullary centre (fig. 591 ; fig. 592, *cl.f.*). The body of the cell of

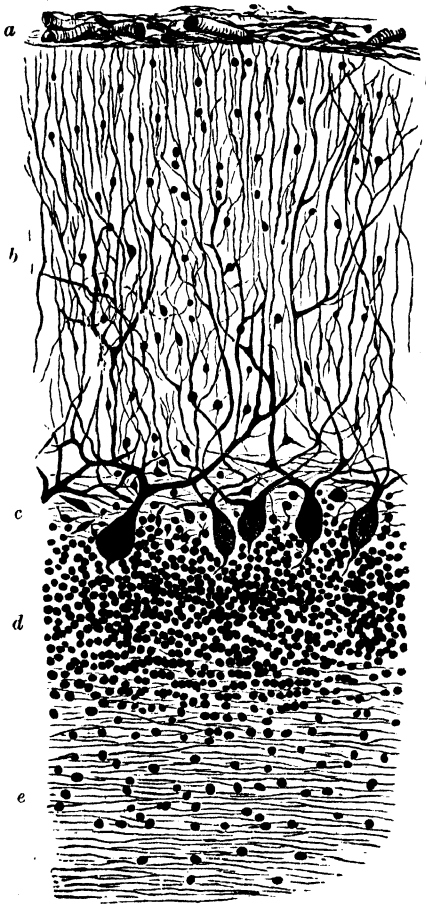


FIG. 587.—SECTION OF CORTEX OF CEREBELLUM. (Sankey.)

a, pia mater ; *b*, outer or molecular layer ; *c*, cells of Purkinje ; *d*, inner or granule layer ; *e*, medullary centre.

Purkinje is further invested by a feltwork of fibrils formed by the arborisation of axis-cylinder processes of nerve-cells known as *basket-cells* in the outer layer of the grey matter (figs. 590 ; 592, *b*). Each cell has therefore a double investment of this nature, one covering the dendrons, the other investing the body of the cell and extending along the commencement of the axon.

The *granules of the inner layer* of grey matter are mostly small nerve-

cells, each with a few dendrons penetrating amongst the other granules, and an axon directed between the cells of Purkinje into the outer layer. After penetrating a variable distance into this layer the axon bifurcates, and its two branches pass in opposite directions at right angles to the main stem, and parallel to the direction of the lamella (fig. 589, I). What ultimately becomes of the branches is not known. In sections cut across

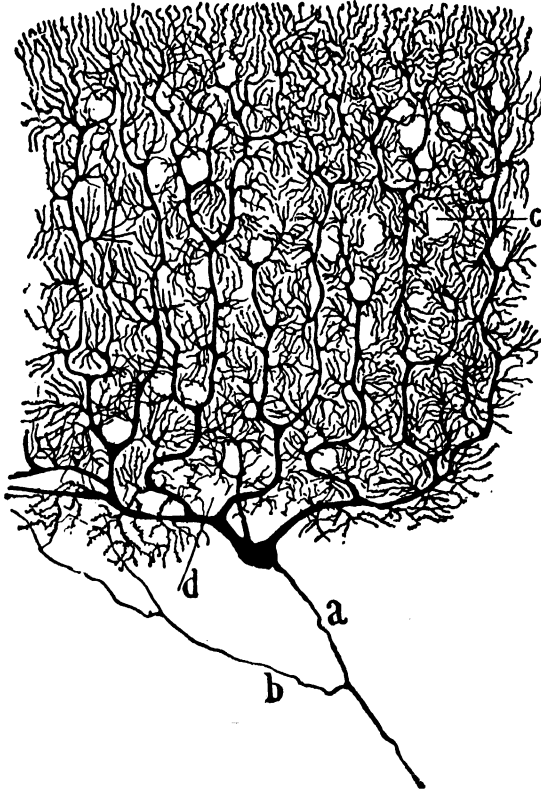


FIG. 588.—A CELL OF PURKINJE OF THE CEREBELLUM, SHOWN BY THE GOLGI METHOD.
(R. y Cajal.)

a, axon; b, collateral from axon; c, d, arborisation of dendrons.

the lamella the cut ends of these fibres give a finely punctuated appearance to the outer layer (fig. 589, II).

Some of the cells of the granule layer are far larger than the others, and send their much-branching axons amongst the smaller granules. They are known as *cells of Golgi* (fig. 592, g). Certain other large 'granules' have been noticed by Cajal, occurring both in the granule layer, and in the white centre, with long axons passing into the white matter of the cerebellum. These are comparatively few in number.

Ramifying amongst the cells of the granule layer are peculiar fibres

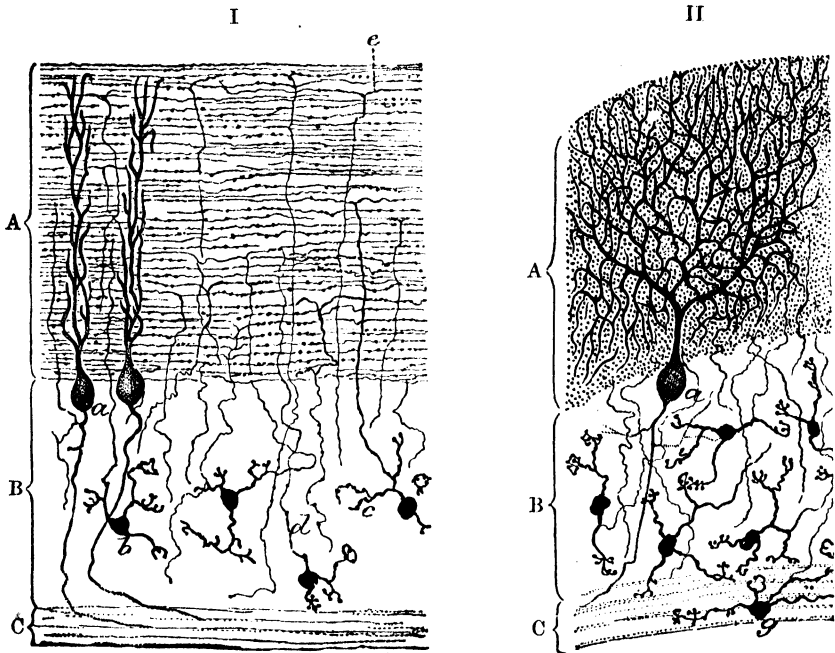


FIG. 589.—SECTIONS OF CORTEX CEREBELLI PREPARED BY THE GOLGI METHOD.
(R. y Cajal.)

I.—Section made in the direction of a lamina. II.—Section taken across a lamina.

A, outer or molecular layer; B, inner or granule layer; C, medullary centre.

a, cells of Purkinje; b, small granules of inner layer; c, dendron of a granule; d, nerve-fibre process of a granule passing into the molecular layer, where it bifurcates and becomes a longitudinal fibre (in II these longitudinal fibres are cut across and appear as dots); e, bifurcation of another fibre; g, granule lying in the white centre.



FIG. 590.—BASKET-CELL OF CEREBELLUM SHOWING THE ARBORISATIONS OF ITS AXON OVER THE CELLS OF PURKINJE. (R. y Cajal.)

A, row of Purkinje cells; B, basket-cell of molecular layer; d, its dendrons; c, its axon; a and b, endings of axon.

derived from the white centre, and characterised by having pencils of fine short branches at intervals, like tufts of moss (fig. 592, *m.f.*). These have been termed by Cajal the *moss-fibres*; they end partly in the granule layer, partly in the molecular layer.

The **neuroglia** of the cerebellum is peculiar in containing, besides the ordinary 'spider' and 'branched' neuroglia-cells (fig. 592, *gl*¹, *gl*²), other large cells with long parallel processes which extend through the molecular layer to be attached to the surface of the lamellæ (*gl*³). The cell-bodies lie at about the same level as those of Purkinje's cells.

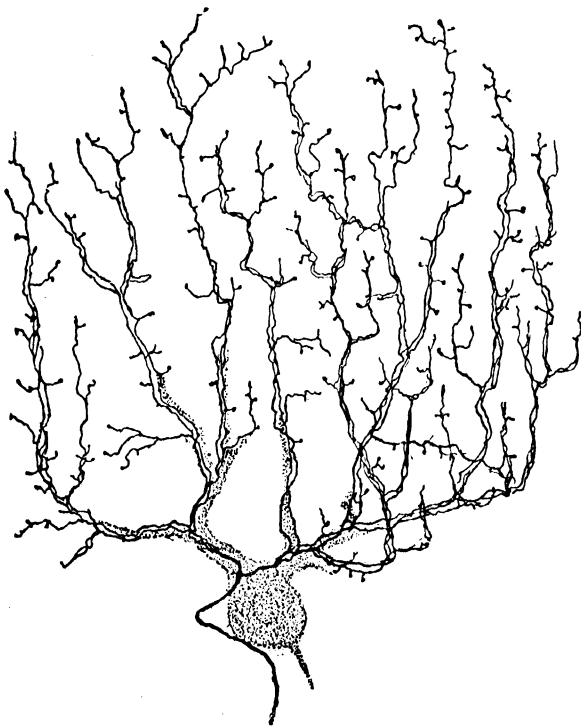


FIG. 591.—ENDING OF A 'TENDRIL' FIBRE OVER THE DENDRONS OF A PURKINJE CELL. HUMAN. (R. y Cajal.)

Fibres of the cerebellar peduncles.—The peduncles of the cerebellum have been already studied in connexion with the medulla oblongata, pons, and mid-brain, but it may be convenient briefly to summarise what has there been stated. The *inferior peduncle* (restiform body) is composed mainly (1) of ascending fibres derived from the dorsal spino-cerebellar tract, running in its outer part; and (2) of fibres from both olivary nuclei, but chiefly from that of the opposite side. This peduncle is also said to receive fibres from the nuclei of the gracile and cuneate funiculi, from cells and nuclei of the reticular formation of the medulla oblongata, and from the sensory nuclei of the cranial nerves, especially of the vestibular nerve. Most of the fibres of the peduncle pass to the lower part of the vermis, crossing to the opposite side over the fourth ventricle, but before doing so they give off strong

collaterals to the hemisphere of the same side. Besides its ascending fibres, the peduncle also contains a small bundle of fibres descending to the medulla oblongata from the nucleus tecti of the opposite side: this bundle bends round the superior peduncle to join the inferior peduncle, its fibres lying between those of the superior peduncle and Gowers' tract (Risien Russell). In the middle of the inferior peduncle



FIG. 592.—DIAGRAMMATIC SECTION OF CEREBELLUM TO SHOW THE CHARACTERS AND RELATIONS OF THE CELLS AND FIBRES MET WITH IN THE SEVERAL LAYERS AS EXHIBITED BY THE GOLGI METHOD. (After Kölliker.)

P, a cell of Purkinje; G, a cell of Golgi; b, a basket-cell; m, m, other cells of the molecular layer; gr., granules; p, a nerve-fibre of the white substance derived from a Purkinje cell; m-f., 'moss'-fibres; cl.f., a climbing fibre; gl, gl¹, gl², types of neuroglia-cells.

is a very small nucleus of grey matter (Déjerine) which is almost completely concealed amongst the mass of white fibres (fig. 560, *n.r.*).

The *middle peduncle* is formed of fibres from the cells of the nuclei pontis which are passing to the opposite hemisphere of the cerebellum.

The *superior peduncle* is formed of fibres which mostly take origin in the corpus dentatum cerebelli, but some are said to arise in the hemisphere and pass through this nucleus. The superior peduncles decussate in the mid-brain across the raphe,

and their fibres then bifurcate into ascending and descending branches. The ascending branches pass forwards and end in the red nucleus, but some fibres go past this into the ventral part of the thalamus. The descending branches are traceable into the dorsal part of the reticular formation of the pons.

The superior peduncle, as it issues from the hemisphere, is joined by the tract of Gowers, which runs over it, and passes backwards along its mesial border to the vermis.

THE CEREBRUM.

The grey matter of the cerebral cortex is usually described as if composed of a number of layers, but the strata are not sharply differentiated and they vary in number and in relative development in different regions of the cortex. Most of the cells are of a long, irregularly conical shape: these are known as the *pyramidal cells* of the cortex, a name somewhat inappropriate as a term intended to describe their form (fig. 593). They vary considerably in size in different levels. The following eight strata are generally distinguishable, but in some parts of the cortex a larger number can be made out, whilst in other parts there are fewer.

1. A peripheral stratum, the *plexiform layer*, containing scattered nerve-cells and many neuroglia-cells (figs. 593, 594, 1). In the most superficial part of this layer, immediately under the pia mater, is a thin stratum of nerve-fibres running parallel with the surface; the layer also contains a large number of ramified fibres. Most of the fibres of this plexiform layer are derived from nerve-cells of the deeper parts of the cortex. Intermingled with the fibres, a

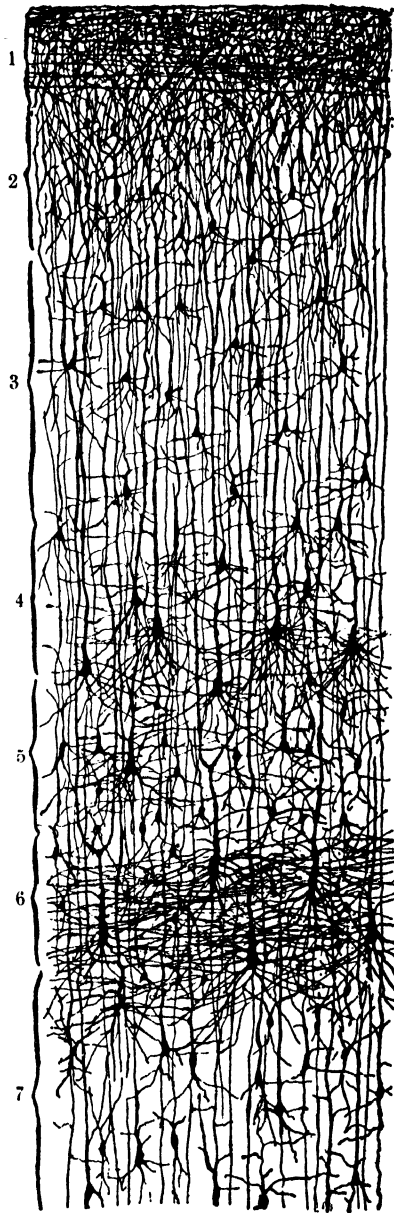


FIG. 593.—ASCENDING PARIETAL (POST-CENTRAL) CONVOLUTION: GOLGI METHOD. (R. y Cajal.)

1, plexiform layer; 2, small pyramids; 3, medium pyramids; 4, superficial large pyramids; 5, granules (small stellate cells); 6, deep large pyramids; 7, deep medium pyramids.

few ramified cells, each with numerous dendrons and a long axon, are disposed parallel with the surface; the axons terminate by arborisations within the layer itself (*horizontal cells* of Cajal, fig. 594). Other cells with shorter axis-cylinder processes also occur in this layer.

2. A layer of closely set small pyramidal nerve-cells, several deep, forming the *layer of the small pyramids* (fig. 593, 2). This layer also contains other cells with short axons.

3. A layer of medium-sized pyramidal cells less closely set, with small granule-like cells amongst them, known as the *layer of medium-sized pyramids* (fig. 593, 3).

4. A layer of larger pyramidal cells, the *superficial large pyramids* (fig. 593, 4).

5. A layer of small irregular cells, the *granule layer* (fig. 593, 5). The large pyramids may extend down into this.

6. A layer of still larger pyramids, known as the *deep large pyramids* (fig. 593, 6). In the excitable region of the frontal cortex, which in man is confined to the precentral gyrus and paracentral lobule, pyramidal cells of very large size, the *Betz cells*, occur within this layer, disposed in small clusters or 'nests' (Betz, Bevan Lewis). The fibres of the pyramid-tract arise from these giant-cells. In some parts of the cortex these large pyramids are either absent or occur among the cells of the next layer.

7. A layer of medium-sized pyramidal cells, the *deep medium pyramids* (fig. 593, 7).

8. A layer of small scattered cells (fig. 594, 4), many of a fusiform shape, forming the *polymorphous layer*. This lies next to the white centre. In the island of Reil it is considerably developed, and is separated from the rest of the grey matter by a layer of white substance. It is here known as the *claustrum*, and on that account the layer has been termed the *claustral layer*.

Some authorities describe the cortex as consisting only of three layers, viz.: the molecular layer, the layer of pyramids, and the layer of polymorphous cells; others, of four, five, etc., up to nine. As a matter of fact, the complexity and the number of distinct layers vary in different regions.

Each pyramidal cell has several basal and one large apical dendron. This last extends to the plexiform layer, on approaching which it breaks up into numerous ramifications which have a general vertical direction and extend almost to the outer surface. The apical dendron is beset, both on its undivided part and on its branches, by minute spinous projections: similar 'spines' may also be seen upon the basal dendrons. The projections are believed by some authors to be retractile (amœboid) and to be the means of effecting (or breaking) nervous connexion with afferent fibres, since they are in some preparations prominent, in others hardly visible: sometimes the dendrons are entirely free from them, and have an even outline or may be slightly moniliform. Each pyramidal cell has a single axon, which is usually directed towards the medullary centre, of which it forms one of the fibres: but the axon sometimes curves back and passes outwards again, ending in an arborisation in one of the other layers. Intermingled with the pyramids and polymorphous cells are two other kinds of cells, viz.: (1) cells with axis-cylinder process ramifying near the body-cell; these occur in all the layers: and (2) small cells sending their axons towards the plexiform layer (Martinotti): these are found chiefly in the deep layers of the grey matter.

From the white centre bundles of myelinate nerve-fibres pass in vertical streaks through the deeper layers of the grey matter to lose themselves

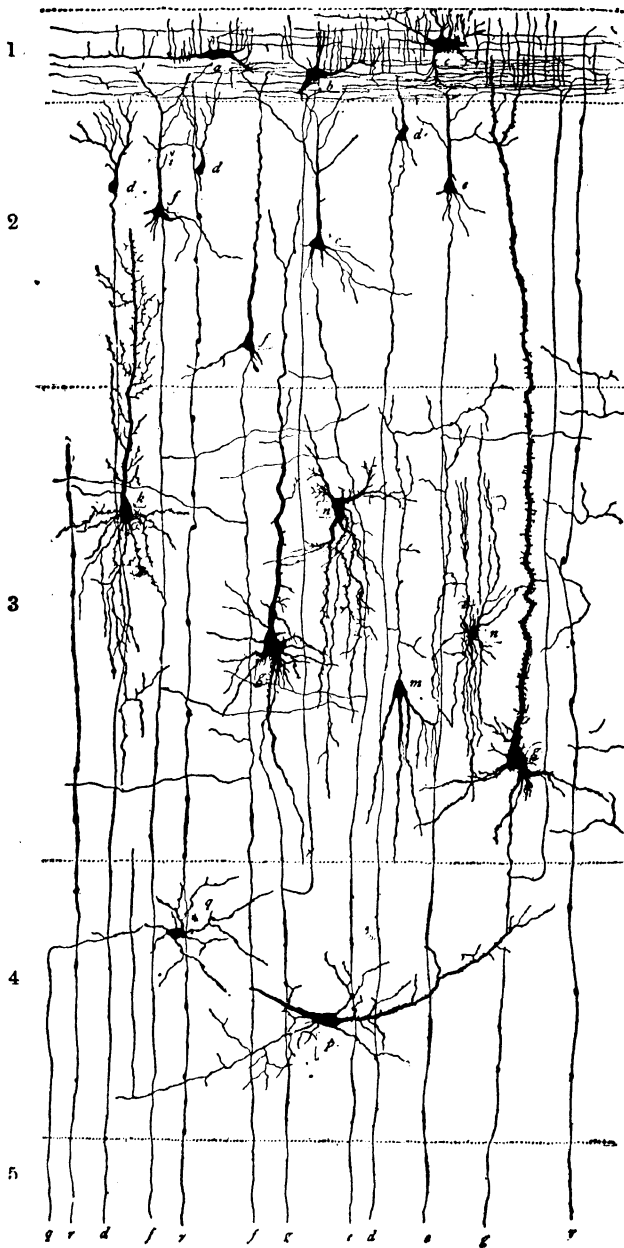


FIG. 594.—DIAGRAM SHOWING THE RELATIONS OF SOME OF THE CELLS OF THE CEREBRAL CORTEX. (Barker, after Starr, Strong, and Leaming.)

1, plexiform layer with horizontal cells of Cajal (*a, b, c*); 2, small (*d, e*) and middle size (*f*) pyramids; 3, large pyramids (*g, h, k*); also *m*, cell with axon passing towards the surface, but soon ramifying; *n, n*, cell of Golgi's second type, with axon ramifying in the adjacent grey matter; one of these belongs to the kind termed by Cajal 'double-brush' cells; 4, polymorphous cells, of which *p* sends its axon towards the surface, and *q* its axon into the medullary centre; 5, white or medullary centre, receiving axons from cells in the grey matter, and including also afferent fibres (*r, r*), ending in the grey matter.

among the pyramidal cells of the more superficial layers. Many large fibres, however, are seen running not vertically but obliquely into the grey cortex from the white matter. Most of the vertically disposed fibres are the nerve-fibre processes of the pyramidal and polymorphous cells, and have taken origin in the cortex; others, including the oblique fibres just mentioned, are passing into the cortex, largely from the thalamus, to end in close arborisations amongst the cells (fig. 596).

Besides these vertical strands of fibres there are others lying in planes parallel to the surface of the cortex, and derived partly from the fibres which enter the cortex from the white matter, partly from the collaterals which are given off from the axis-cylinder processes of the

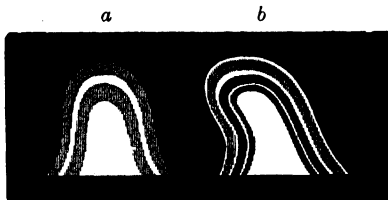


FIG. 595.—SECTIONS OF CEREBRAL CONVOLUTIONS. (After Baillarger.)
Natural size.

a, from the neighbourhood of the calcarine fissure with only one white line clearly visible (the line of Gennari); *b*, ordinary type, with the superficial white layer and outer and inner lines of Baillarger shown.

cortical cells themselves. The planes in which these fibres occur are: (1) near the surface, in the plexiform (molecular) layer: this superficial stratum of white fibres is best marked in the hippocampal region; (2) in the layer of medium-sized pyramids; here the fibres give the appearance of a whitish line in the section of the grey matter (*outer line of Baillarger*, fig. 595, *b*). There is a particularly dense plexus of fibres in this situation in the visual region of the cortex (all over the occipital lobe in animals but in man only in the convolutions bounding the calcarine fissure), producing a very distinct line, known as the *line of Gennari* (fig. 595, *a*). This plexus of nerve-fibres is in intimate association with certain large and small stellate cells characteristic of the visual region. (3) In most regions of the brain, in

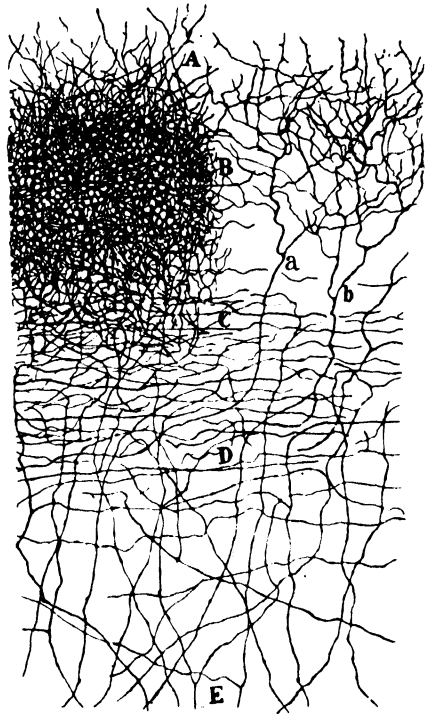


FIG. 596.—PREPARATION SHOWING SOME OF THE AFFERENT FIBRES OF THE ASCENDING FRONTAL OR PRECENTRAL GYRUS. (R. y Cajal.)

A, part of second layer; B, close terminal plexus in layer of medium-sized pyramids; C to D, intermediate plexus of horizontal fibres; E, deep plexus of large oblique afferent fibres; *a*, *b*, afferent fibres arborising in the layer of middle pyramids, amongst which they form, along with fibres derived from cells in the cortex itself, the dense plexus which is shown in the left half of the figure. The efferent fibres are now shown in this figure.

the plane of the layer of large pyramids, another white line is seen ; this is known as the *inner line of Baillarger* (fig. 595, *b*). The planes in which these white lines are found are characterised, especially in the occipital and temporal lobes, by the presence amongst the pyramids of great numbers of very small nerve-cells, amongst which the white fibres of the layers ramify and probably terminate. According to Cajal, in the brain of man as compared with the lower mammals, there is a marked preponderance in the grey matter of the cortex cerebri of cells with a short axis-cylinder ramifying near the cell body. Such cells are most numerous amongst the stellate cells and the small pyramids.

The axis-cylinder processes of the pyramidal cells pass into the white centre (fig. 597). Here some of them are continued into the corpus callosum

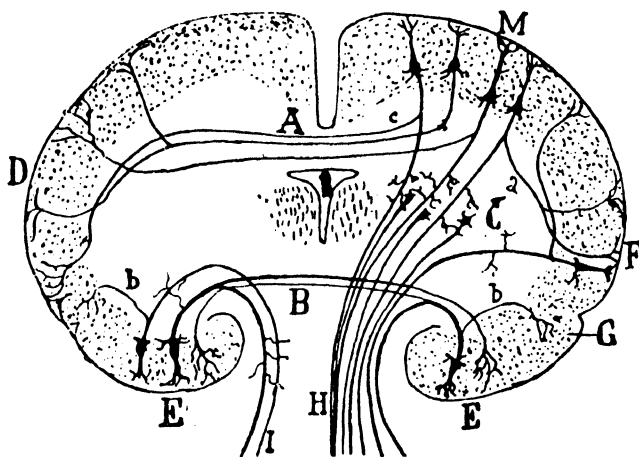


FIG. 597.—DIAGRAM TO ILLUSTRATE THE ORIGIN AND COURSE OF THE ASSOCIATION, COMMISSURAL AND PROJECTION FIBRES OF THE CEREBRAL CORTEX. (R. y Cajal.)

A, commissural fibres connecting cells of the motor cortex, M, with the opposite hemisphere; B, commissural fibres connecting the opposite sensory regions of the cortex; C, cells in basal ganglia giving origin to descending fibres and receiving collaterals from projection fibres, H, of cells of the motor cortex; D, E, endings of commissural fibres in grey matter; F, G, endings of association fibres in grey matter; I, a projection fibre from sensory (hippocampal) cortex; a, b, c, collaterals.

and through this to the cortex of the opposite hemisphere as *commissural fibres* ; others form *association fibres* which eventually pass again into the grey matter of other parts of the same hemisphere ; whilst others again, especially those of the largest pyramidal cells, extend downwards as *projection fibres* through the corona radiata and internal capsule. These include the fibres of the pyramid-tract and of the cortico-pontine tract. As the projection fibres pass through the grey and white matter of the hemisphere they give off collateral fibres to the adjacent grey matter, to the corpus callosum, and to the corpus striatum and optic thalamus, and some probably end in these masses of grey matter.

The **neuroglia of the cortex cerebri**, like that of the cerebellum, contains the types of glia-cell already described on p. 513. The ependyma cells of the ventricles are prolonged, like the cells of the central canal of the cord, in the form of long neuroglia-like fibres far into the adjacent grey matter.

SPECIAL FEATURES OF CERTAIN PARTS OF THE CORTEX.

There is, as already stated, a great amount of variation met with in the relative extent of development of the above layers. This is exemplified in the accompanying drawings by Bevan Lewis (fig. 599) from different regions of the monkey's brain. From these it will be seen that smaller-sized cells prevail in certain regions of the cortex (occipital, temporal); larger and fewer cells in others (frontal, parietal, limbic). Nests or groups of 'giant' cells are characteristic of the excitable region (precentral gyrus and paracentral lobule in man and anthropoid apes); these cells give origin to the fibres of the pyramid-tract, and undergo Nissl degeneration when those fibres are severed (Page May). The occipital region (in man, the neighbourhood of the calcarine fissure) is especially characterised by containing a great number of the small stellate cells and by the presence in the layer superficial to those of a stratum of very large stellate cells with long spreading dendrons: amongst these small and large stellate cells the optic fibres from the lateral geniculate bodies ramify. A preponderance of small stellate cells is also seen, but to a less extent, in sections of the temporal lobe. In the prefrontal and parietal regions they are less numerous, at least in the motor cortex. The first temporal gyrus is characterised by the presence in nearly all the layers, but especially the deepest, of special large cells with widely spreading dendrons and an axon passing towards the white substance but giving off many collaterals in the grey matter. There are also in this gyrus very many cells, with their axons ramifying in the most complex manner near the cell-body, mainly in a plane vertical to the surface. The hippocampal gyrus has groups or islets of stellate cells (groups of small cells alternating with groups of larger) in the plexiform layer. The cortex of the insula has special cells similar to those in the first temporal gyrus, and is further characterised by the peculiar spindle-shape of many of the large pyramids.

The size and number of the myelinate fibres of the grey matter vary in different regions. In some they are large and numerous (precentral part of frontal lobe, calcarine area, hippocampal area), in others fine and much less conspicuous (gyrus fornicatus, temporal area, parietal area, prefrontal area, insula and lobus pyriformis), while an intermediate condition presents itself in man in the occipital area (except in the calcarine region), the transverse temporal gyri and superior temporal gyrus, and the part of the frontal lobe immediately in front of the excitable region. These differences have been employed by Campbell in an attempt to correlate the functions of the various cerebral regions by a comparison of their structure.

The **rhinencephalon** (olfactory region of the telencephalon)—on account of the peculiarities of its structure, its importance in most animals, and the fact that it has been the part of the telencephalon to appear first in phylogenetic development—merits a special description, although in Man and Primates generally, and in some other (microsmatic) mammals, it is reduced to a comparatively rudimentary condition. In the so-called osmatic (macrosmatic) mammals the rhinencephalon consists of a large hollow

olfactory bulb, the cavity of which communicates with the lateral ventricle. It forms the anterior termination of a thick *olfactory lobe* which broadens out behind and becomes continuous with the *hippocampal gyrus* and *hippocampus*. The whole forms a pyriform mass, separated from the rest of the cortex by a well-marked fissure—the *limbic fissure*—and has special connexions through the anterior commissure and fornix with other parts of the brain on the same and on the opposite side.

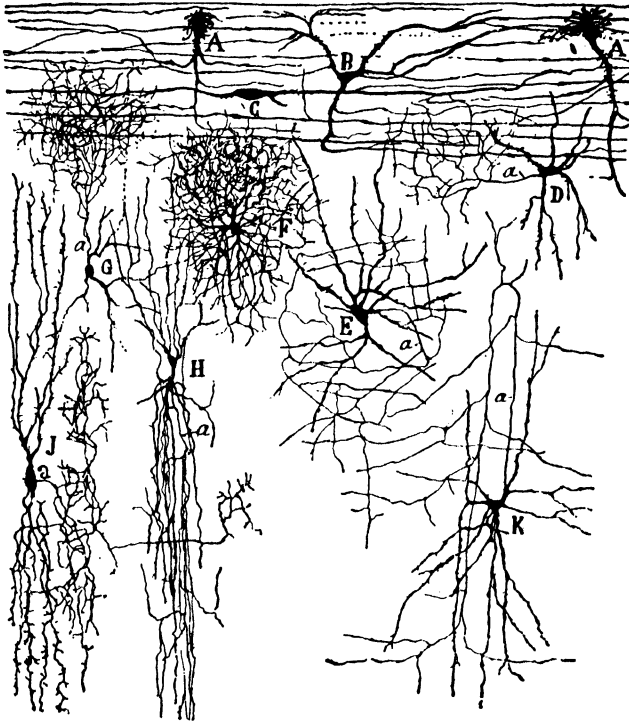


FIG. 598.—SUPERFICIAL LAYERS OF MOTOR CORTEX OF CHILD: GOLGI METHOD. (Cajal.)

A, B, C, cells of Cajal in plexiform layer; D to K, cells of type II of Golgi (with axons (a) ramifying near cell-body); H, J, 'double-brush' types of cell.

In man the rhinencephalon consists anteriorly of the small *olfactory bulb* from which the thin *olfactory tract* extends backwards to the grey matter at the base of the brain and to the hippocampal region. Posteriorly the cortex of the rhinencephalon is doubled in so as to form a projection, the *hippocampus major*, in the descending cornu of the lateral ventricle; its edge here thins off and is continued merely as a thin layer of epithelium covering the choroid plexus of the pia mater, which is invaginated into the ventricle. At this thin edge the white matter comes to the surface as the *fimbria* which is continued on each side into the commissural band known as the *fornix*. Lying along the fimbria is the small and half-concealed *dentate gyrus*, which is formed by the sharp bending of the grey matter, and is traceable round

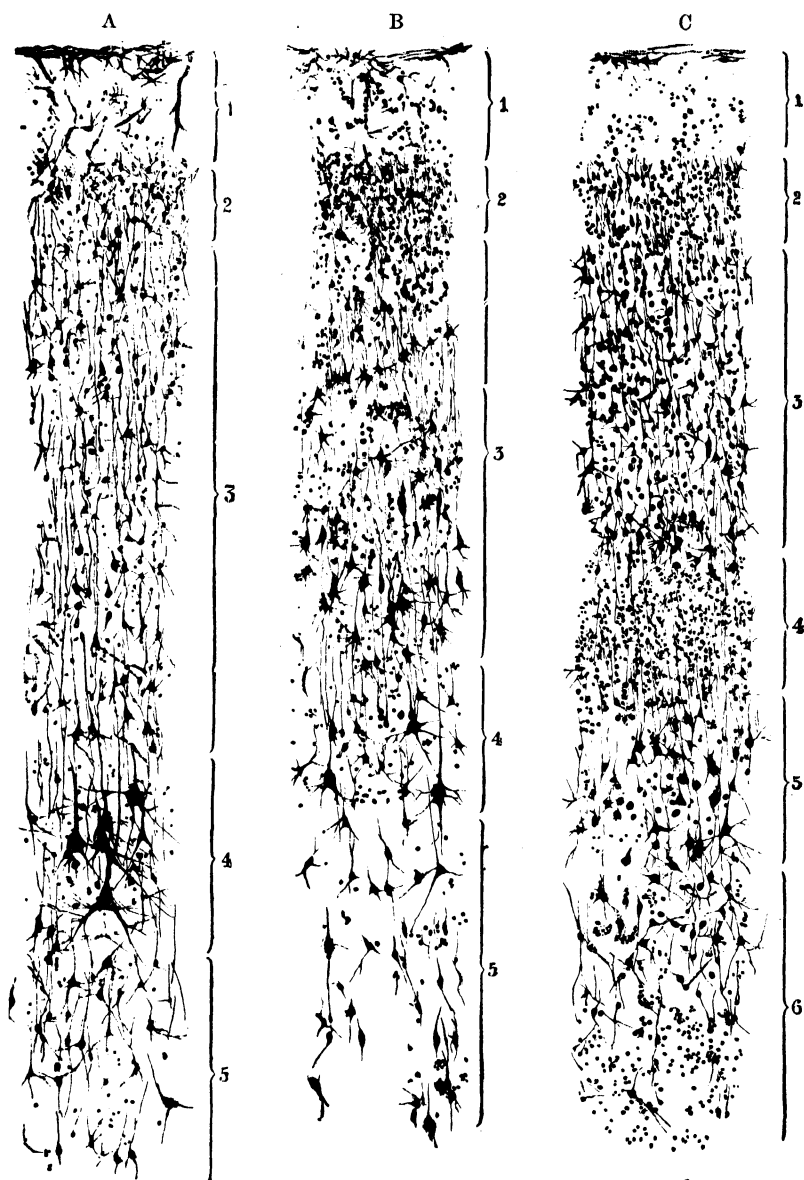


FIG. 599.—STRUCTURE OF DIFFERENT REGIONS OF THE CEREBRAL CORTEX OF THE MONKEY (Bevan Lewis.) $\times 145$.

A, precentral gyrus; B, prefrontal cortex; C, temporal cortex.

In A and B.—1, plexiform layer; 2, small pyramids; 3, medium pyramids; 4, large pyramids; 5, polymorphous cells.

In C.—1, plexiform layer; 2, small pyramids; 3, medium pyramids; 4, small stellate cells; 5, large pyramids; 6, polymorphous cells.

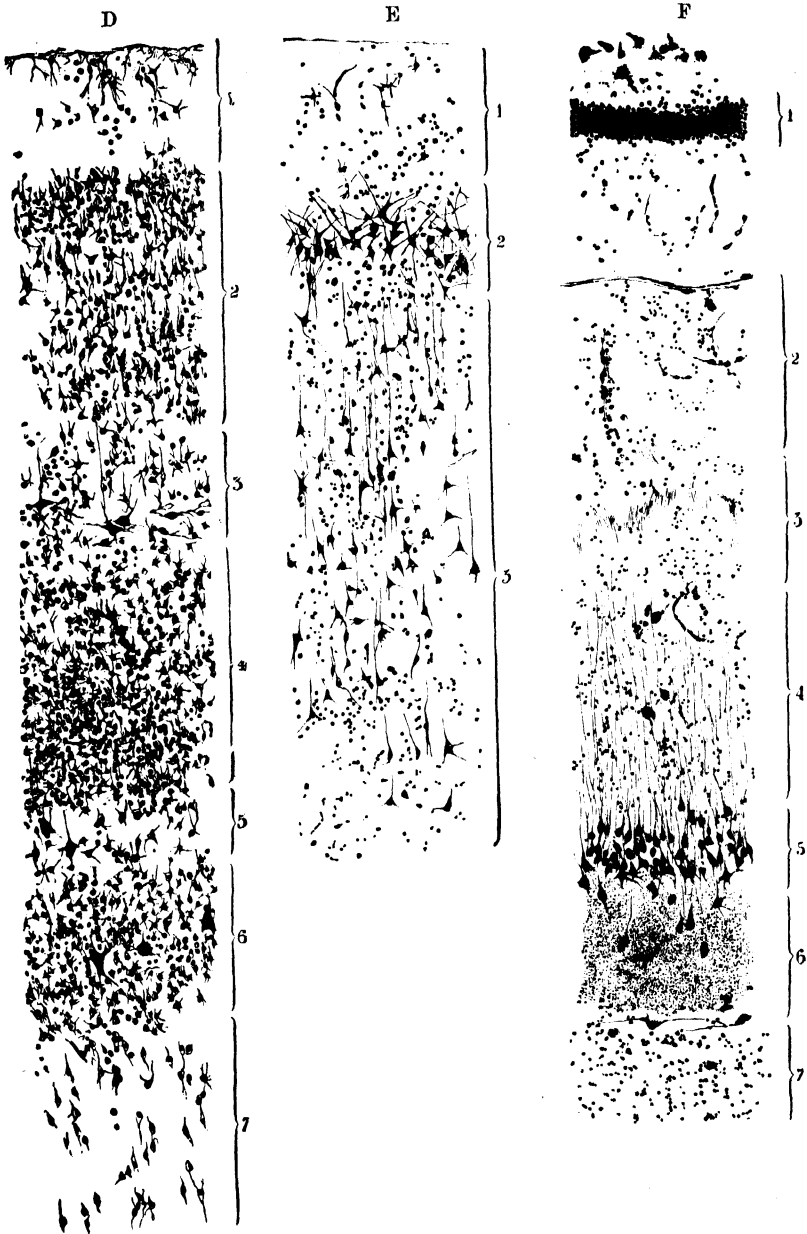


FIG. 599 (cont.).

D, occipital cortex (calcarine gyrus in man); E, gyrus hippocampi; F, hippocampus major.
 In D.—1, plexiform layer; 2, small pyramids; 3, large stellate cells; 4, small stellate cells; 5, large pyramids; 6, small stellate cells; 7, polymorphous layer.
 In E.—1, plexiform layer; 2, large stellate cells; 3, pyramids with small stellate cells interspersed amongst them.
 In F.—1, fascia dentata; 2, stratum granulosum; 3, stratum lacunosum; 4 and 5, pyramids; 6, polymorphous or molecular layer; 7, alveus.

into the hippocampus major, the hippocampal fissure being between them; the hippocampus major is continuous externally with the *gyrus hippocampi*. The olfactory tract is connected directly with the hippocampal region by

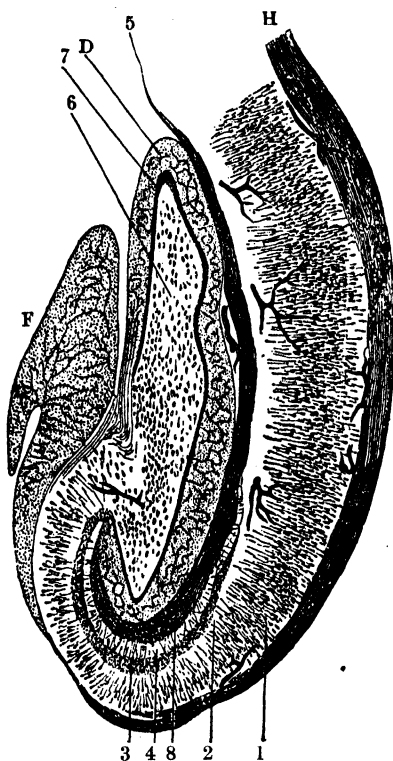


FIG. 600.

FIG. 600.—SECTION ACROSS THE HIPPOCAMPUS MAJOR, DENTATE FISSURE, DENTATE FASCIA AND FIMBRIA. (W. Krause.)

D, fascia dentata, or dentate convolution; F, fimbria, composed of longitudinal fibres here cut across; H, medullary centre of the hippocampal gyrus prolonged around the hippocampus, as the so-called alveus, into the fimbria; 1, layer of large pyramidal cells; 2, their processes (stratum radiatum); 3, stratum granulosum; 4, plexiform layer (stratum lacunosum); 5, superficial white layer; 6, nerve-cell of fascia dentata; 7, stratum granulosum of fascia dentata; 8, termination of superficial white layer, its fibres becoming longitudinal.

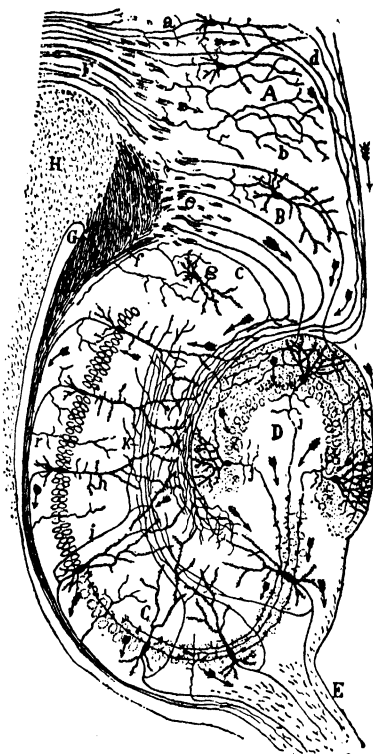


FIG. 601.

FIG. 601.—HIPPOCAMPAL REGION: GOLGI METHOD. (R. y Cajal.)

A, B, hippocampal gyrus; C, hippocampus major; D, dentate gyrus; E, fimbria; F, white matter of hippocampal gyrus; G, in lateral ventricle; the line points to the crossed spheno-hippocampal bundle; H, fibres of corpus callosum.

a, efferent fibres of hippocampal gyrus; b, afferent fibres of hippocampal gyrus; c, afferent fibres of hippocampus and dentate gyrus; d, others perforating grey matter of hippocampal gyrus; e, others cut obliquely; f, fibres of alveus; g, h, cells of hippocampus major sending their axons into the alveus and towards the fimbria; i, k, collaterals from these axons passing to the molecular layer; r, collateral fibres of alveus. The arrows indicate the probable course of the nerve impulses.

a lateral root, whilst a mesial root passes into the anterior commissure and forms a connexion with the rhinencephalon of the opposite side. The structure and connexions of all these parts as they occur in man may be briefly given.

In the region of the hippocampus major (figs 600, 601) the cortex is

simpler in structure than elsewhere, and in the hippocampus major itself, which is an infolded part of the cortex, the pyramids are reduced to a single layer of large cells lying in the deeper portion and sending their apical dendrons as long fibres towards the plexiform layer. The plexiform layer and the superficial white stratum overlying it are both very strongly marked, the plexiform layer having a distinctly reticular aspect, due partly to neuroglia-cells, partly to the arborescence of the dendrons of the pyramids. The plexiform layer is termed *stratum lacinosum*; internal to it nearer the dentate gyrus is a layer of closely packed small cells termed *stratum granulosum*. The pyramidal cells lie close to a white layer known as the *alveus*. This is the part of the hippocampus seen within the ventricle, and represents the white matter of the hemisphere, here greatly attenuated. The *alveus* is prolonged externally into the fimbria, in which its fibres become longitudinal in direction and are continued into part of the fornix.

In the dentate gyrus (*fascia dentata*, figs. 600, 601) the pyramidal cells are arranged in an irregularly radiating manner. They occupy the centre of the convolution, and are surrounded by a ring of closely packed small cells, the *stratum granulosum* of *fascia dentata*. External to these small cells is a thick plexiform layer or *stratum lacinosum*.

Del Rio Hortega finds that many of the cells of the *fascia dentata* are peculiar in having numerous short feather-like secondary dendrons, coming off laterally from the primary dendrons and in some cases from the cell-body.

The anterior part of the hippocampal gyrus, known as the lobus pyramiformis, receives the lateral root of the olfactory tract. It is characterised by the presence in the plexiform layer of peculiar nests of nerve-cells. The cells in these nests are of two types, viz., large polymorphous cells and small pyramidal cells, each being confined to its own nest. This part of the cortex is regarded by Cajal as the true olfactory region. In some animals the anterior perforated space forms a distinct prominence of the cortex (tuberculum olfactorium) and this is also characterised by cell-nests, the *islets of Calleja*. They also occur in the cortex bounding the hippocampal fissure.

The **olfactory tract** is an outgrowth of the brain which was originally hollow, and remains so in many animals; but in man the cavity has become obliterated, and the centre is occupied by neuroglia, containing no nerve cells. Outside the central neuroglia lies the white or medullary substance, consisting of bundles of longitudinal white fibres. Most external is a thin superficial layer of neuroglia.

The **olfactory bulb** (fig. 602) has a more complicated structure than the tract. Dorsally there is a flattened ring of longitudinal white bundles enclosing neuroglia (1, 2, 3), as in the olfactory tract, but below this ring several layers are recognised as follows:—

1. A *white or medullary layer* (fig. 602, 4, 5), characterised by the presence of a larger number of small cells ('granules') with reticulating bundles of myelinate nerve-fibres running longitudinally between them.

2. A *layer of large nerve-cells* (fig. 602, 6), with smaller ones ('granules') intermingled, the whole embedded in an interlacement of fibrils derived from the cell-dendrons. From the shape of most of the large cells of this layer

(fig. 603, *m.c.*) it has been termed the 'mitral' layer. These cells send their axons upwards into the next layer; they eventually become fibres of the olfactory tract and pass along this to the base of the brain, giving off numerous collaterals into the bulb as they run backwards.

3. The *layer of olfactory glomeruli* (fig. 602, 7; fig. 603, *gl.*). This consists of rounded nest-like interlacements of fibrils which are derived on the one hand from the terminal arborisations of the myelinated olfactory fibres which form the subjacent layer, and on the other hand from arborisations

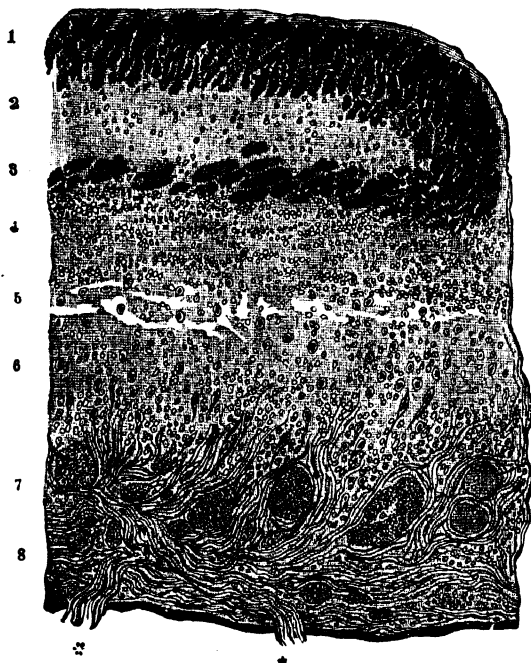


FIG. 602.—SECTION ACROSS A PART OF THE OLFACTORY BULB. (Henle.)

1, 3, bundles of very fine transversely cut nerve-fibres, forming the flattened medullary ring, enclosing the central neuroglia, 2; this ring is the anterior continuation of the olfactory tract; 4, 5, white layer with numerous small cells (granules); 6, mitral-cell layer; 7, layer of olfactory glomeruli; 8, layer of olfactory nerve-fibres, bundles of which are seen at * passing through the cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone.

of dendrons of the large 'mitral' cells of the layer above. There are also a few small nerve-cells immediately external to and extending within the glomeruli (periglomerular cells). These are short-axoned cells and appear to connect neighbouring glomeruli.

The *layer of olfactory nerve-fibres* (fig. 602, 8; fig. 603, *olf.n.*). These are all myelinated, and are continued from the olfactory fibres of the olfactory mucous membrane of the nasal fossæ. In this mucous membrane they take origin from the bipolar olfactory cells, which are so characteristic of the membrane (see p. 560), and they end in arborisations within the olfactory glomeruli, where they come in contact with the arborisations of the mitral cells. The relations of the olfactory cells and fibres to the mitral cells,

and the continuation of the axis-cylinders of the latter upwards and backwards in the olfactory tract, are shown in the accompanying diagrams

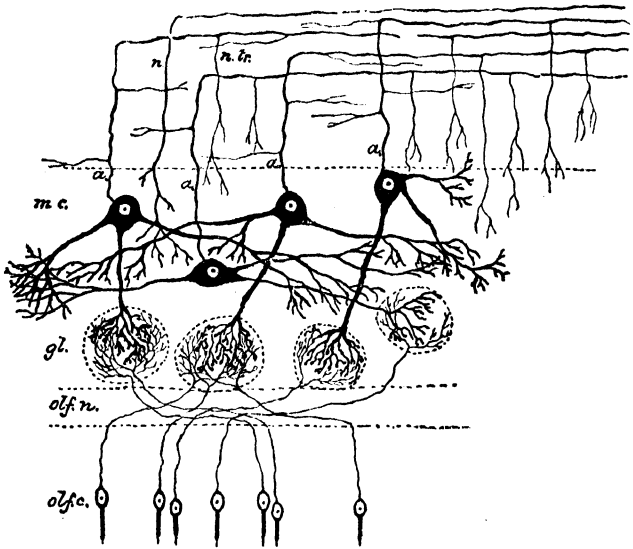


FIG. 603.—DIAGRAM TO SHOW THE RELATIONS OF CELLS AND FIBRES IN THE OLFACTORY BULB. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

olf.c., olfactory cells in the olfactory mucous membrane, sending their basal processes as myelinated nerve-fibres into the deepest layer of the olfactory bulb (*olf.n.*); *gl.*, olfactory glomeruli with synapses between the terminal arborisations of the olfactory fibres and of dendritic processes from the mitral cells; *mc.*, mitral cells, some sending dendritic processes down to the olfactory glomeruli, others terminating laterally in free ramifications in the nerve-cell layer, and their axis-cylinder processes, *a*, *a*, upwards, to turn sharply backwards and become fibres of the olfactory tract (*n.tr.*). Numerous collaterals are seen coming off from these fibres; *n*, a nerve-fibre of the olfactory tract ending in a free ramification in the olfactory bulb.

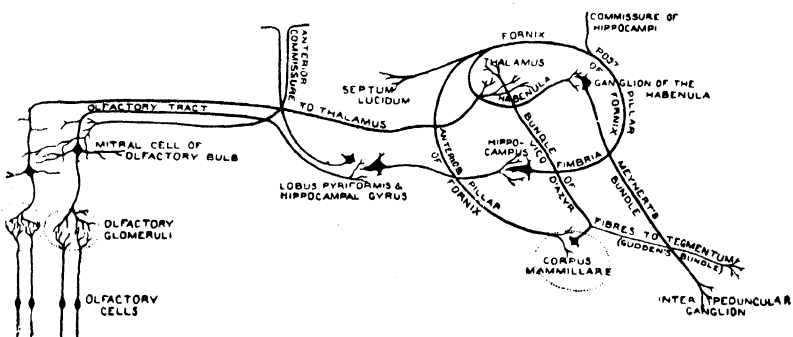


FIG. 604.—DIAGRAM OF THE OLFACTORY PATH IN THE BRAIN. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

To simplify the diagram the various divarications of the olfactory path have been represented by branchings of individual fibres, although in some cases the divergence is brought about by the turning aside of bundles of entire fibres.

(figs. 603, 604). Besides the centripetal nerve-fibres there are a certain number of centrifugal fibres which end by ramifying in the olfactory bulb amongst the mitral cells (fig. 603, *n*).

As shown in fig. 604, many of the fibres of the olfactory tract pass to the hippocampal region of the brain, terminating by arborescences in the grey matter (molecular layer) of the base of the olfactory lobe in the region of the anterior perforated space, as well as in that of the uncus and the hippocampal gyrus. Fibres are also given off from the olfactory tract to the *anterior commissure* which proceed to the opposite tract and bulb. Besides these the anterior commissure contains many fibres which are passing from the hippocampal region on one side to the corresponding region on the opposite side of the brain. Fibres pass from the pyramid-cells of the base of the olfactory lobe and hippocampal gyrus to the grey matter of the hippocampus, while from the pyramid-cells of the hippocampus others proceed by way of the fimbria and fornix to the hippocampus of the other side, to the subcallosal gyrus and septum lucidum, to the ganglion of the habenula and finally by the anterior pillar of the fornix to the corpora mammillaria.

CORPUS STRIATUM.

Besides the grey matter of the cerebral cortex the cerebral hemispheres conceal in their deeper parts certain other masses of grey substance (figs. 579, 580). The principal of these are the *corpus striatum*, consisting of *nucleus caudatus* (*n.c.*), and *nucleus lenticularis* (*n.l.*) and the *thalamus* (*th.*). Between them run the bundles of white fibres which are passing downwards to the crus cerebri, forming a white lamina termed the *internal capsule* (*i.c.*). Above the level of these nuclei the internal capsule expands into the medullary centre of the hemisphere. Below the thalami are the prominent ganglia known as *corpora albicantia* or *mammillaria*. Of these the optic thalami and corpora mammillaria have already been noticed.

The **nucleus caudatus** of the corpus striatum is composed of a reddish-grey substance containing nerve-cells, some with long others with short axon-processes, certain of the cells with long processes being very large. It receives fibres from the part of the internal capsule which separates it from the nucleus lenticularis. Next to the lateral ventricle it is covered by a thin layer of neuroglia, and over this by the epithelium of the cavity (ependyma).

The **nucleus lenticularis**, which corresponds in position internally with the island of Reil externally, is divided by two white laminæ into three zones. It is separated from the nucleus caudatus and optic thalamus by the internal capsule, which consists of the bundles of fibres which are passing between the white centre of the hemisphere and the crus cerebri. Many of the nerve-cells of the nucleus lenticularis contain yellow pigment. No fibres have been found connecting the cerebral cortex to the corpus striatum, the nuclei of which are linked to one another by fine fibres traversing the internal capsule. The only fibres passing out of the corpus striatum are the fibres of the *ansa lenticularis* which arise from the *globus pallidus* and pass to the subthalamic region (p. 507).

The **internal capsule** is continued below into the *crusta*. It consists mainly of fibres connected with the cortex cerebri, and passing to (or from)

the thalamus, mid-brain, pons, medulla oblongata, and spinal cord. A horizontal section across the internal capsule (fig. 580) shows it to be bounded laterally by the lenticular nucleus, mesially by the caudate nucleus, the stria medullaris, and the thalamus. Such a section shows a sharp bend in the plane of the capsule—the genu. Fibres from the motor region of the cortex (pyramid-tract) pass down in the part of the capsule extending from the genu as far as the posterior limit of the lenticular nucleus. In this area the fibres for the head and eyes are massed chiefly in the anterior part: those for the lower limb in the posterior part, while those for the face, arm, and trunk occupy intermediate positions from before backwards, in the order named (Beever and Horsley), but without being strictly confined to definite zones.

The fibres from the cortex to the thalamus lie mainly in the anterior limb of the internal capsule, while afferent fibres from the thalamus to the cortex occur in the posterior part of the posterior limb; but they extend forwards so as to mingle with the descending fibres of the pyramid-tract.

MEMBRANES OF THE BRAIN.

The membranes of the brain (fig. 605) are similar in general structure and arrangement to those of the spinal cord with which they are continuous

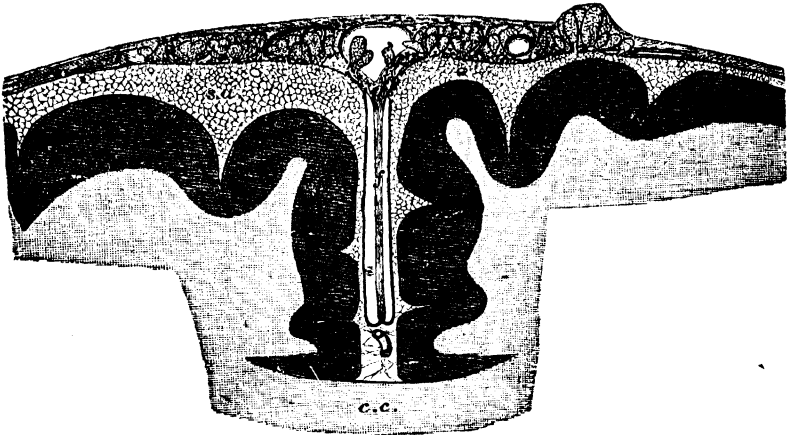


FIG. 605.—SECTION THROUGH THE UPPER PART OF THE BRAIN, TO SHOW THE RELATIONS OF ITS MEMBRANES. (Alex Key and Gustaf Retzius.)

c.c., corpus callosum; *f*, great longitudinal fissure between the hemispheres containing the projection of dura mater known as the falx cerebri; *s.a.*, subarachnoid space between the pia mater which closely covers the surface of the brain and dura mater which lines the skull. The arachnoid is in this part close to the dura mater into which and into the great longitudinal venous sinus in the middle it sends villous projections (Pacchionian glands).

through the occipital foramen. The dura mater is, however, more closely adherent to the inner surface of the bony enclosure than is the case in the vertebral canal, while the arachnoid is in most places close to the dura mater, and separated from the pia mater by a wide subarachnoid space, which is

bridged across by finely reticulating bands of the same tissue. Numerous small villous processes of the arachnoid penetrate into the venous sinuses and veins in the dura mater; they serve to drain the cerebro-spinal fluid into the venous system. Some of these arachnoid processes increase in size with age and become denser in structure; they may eventually even pass

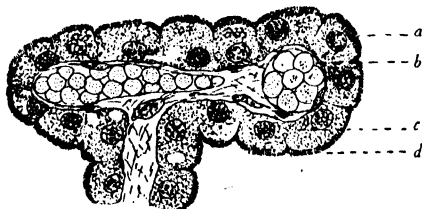


FIG. 606.—SECTION SHOWING STRUCTURE OF CHOROID PLEXUS: RABBIT. (W. J. Meek.) $\times 1000$.

a and *c*, epithelium-cells, showing in each the nucleus; *b*, capillary, filled with blood-corpuscles; *d*, striated border of epithelium.

beyond the dura and become embedded in the skull. They are there known as the *Pacchionian glands*.

The pia mater is closely adherent to the surface of the brain, and dips into all the sulci. In it the blood-vessels ramify before passing into the substance of the brain. They are accompanied, as they thus enter the

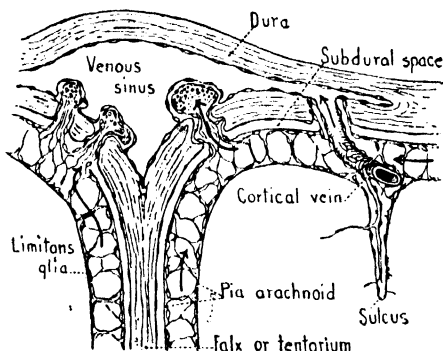


FIG. 607.—DIAGRAM TO SHOW THE PROBABLE COURSE OF CEREBRO-SPINAL FLUID FROM THE CORTEX TO THE VARIOUS SINUSES OF THE DURA. (Harvey Cushing, modified from Weed.)

cerebral substance, by prolongations of the pia mater and arachnoid, which do not, however, closely invest them, but leave a clear perivascular space around each vessel, presumably for the passage of fluid. The capillary network is much closer in the grey than in the white matter. The large veins are contained within the dura mater, in which they run in certain parts in the form of sinuses; the chief of these are found at the lines of junction of the principal folds (falx, tentorium) with the main portion of the membrane.

The pia mater sends highly vascular infoldings into the ventricles known as the *choroid plexuses*. They are covered with cubical epithelium-cells (fig. 606), to which nerve-fibres have been traced (Stöhr).

The **cerebro-spinal fluid**, although often referred to as the lymph of the brain, differs from ordinary lymph in many respects. It contains only a minute amount of protein, consisting almost entirely of water and salts, with traces of nitrogenous non-protein bodies and a small amount of a carbohydrate which reduces cupric salts. A small number of lymphocytes are normally found in cerebro-spinal fluid (usually about five for every cubic millimetre of the fluid). The total volume of the latter, in the adult human being, is estimated at some 100 cubic centimetres. The fluid is not a mere filtrate or dialysate from the blood but is mainly the secretion of the choroid plexuses. To this is added a watery fluid which enters it from the substance of the brain and cord along channels surrounding the blood-vessels as they emerge from the nervous substance to join the pia mater. This fluid is derived from the blood-vessels of the brain and cord and may be assumed to contain the waste products of metabolism of the nervous tissues. The cerebro-spinal fluid finds its way back into the blood, partly by absorption into the thin-walled veins of the pia mater, and partly into the venous sinuses of the brain through the arachnoidal villi, which act like valves in permitting a flow of fluid only in the direction of the sinuses. A flow of cerebro-spinal fluid is thus continually maintained, and follows a regular course which may properly be described as its 'circulation' (fig. 607).

LESSONS XLVI., XLVII., AND XLVIII.

THE EYE.

1. CARE is needed in the preparation of sections of the whole globe. The organ may be fixed in 5 per cent. formol made up in 0·6 per cent. saline for 24 hours. It should then be bisected—usually in the antero-posterior plane. Before doing this, wrap the eye in a thin piece of indiarubber (*e.g.*, the cuff of an old surgical glove). Place it in a freezing mixture of crushed ice (2 parts) and common salt (1 part) for at least half an hour. Then divide the eye-ball with a very sharp knife. Next take it slowly through upgraded alcohols (twenty-four hours in each) to absolute alcohol. The celloidin method of embedding should be used.

2. Examine sections of the eyelid (fixed in Susa) vertical to its surfaces and across its long axis.

Note the long sacculated Meibomian glands lying in dense connective tissue close to the conjunctival surface, their ducts opening at the margin of the lid. External to these the small fibres of the orbicularis palpebrarum are cut across; a few of the fibres of the muscle lie on the conjunctival side of the duct. A short distance from the Meibomian gland may be observed a tolerably large sebaceous gland: outside this again are the eyelashes. In the skin covering the outer surface of the eyelid a few small hairs may be seen. At the attached part of the eyelid are some bundles of involuntary muscular fibres cut longitudinally in the section, and in the upper eyelid the fibrous insertion of the elevator muscle may be observed attached to the dense connective tissue.

Make a general sketch under a low power.

3. Examine sections through the posterior part of an eyeball (man or pig). These sections will show the relative thickness of the several coats and the layers of which each coat is formed. Sections which pass through the point of entrance of the optic nerve will exhibit the manner in which the nerve pierces the several coats to reach the inner surface of the retina. The modifications which are found in the neighbourhood of the yellow spot may be made out in sections of that region, but they must be from the human eye.

4. Examine sections of the anterior half of an eyeball. These sections should pass through the middle of the cornea. The lens may be left *in situ*, but this renders the preparation of the sections and the mounting of them difficult on account of the extreme hardness which is imparted to the lens-tissue by alcohol.

In these sections make a general sketch under a low power, showing the relations of the several parts one with another. Study carefully, and sketch in detail, the layers of the cornea, the junction of the cornea and sclerotic, the ciliary muscle, the muscular tissue of the iris, the mode of suspension of the lens, and the pars ciliaris retinae.

5. Mount in balsam thin tangential sections of a cornea stained with gold chloride by Cohnheim's method; if from the frog, the cornea can be torn with fine forceps into thin lamellæ, which are mounted whole. Sketch three or four of the connective-tissue cells (corneal corpuscles). The arrangement and distribution of the nerve-fibres and their termination amongst the epithelium-cells, as shown in gold chloride preparations, have been already studied (Lesson XIX).

6. Remove the sclerotic from the anterior part of a human eye which has been preserved in Müller's fluid, and tear off thin shreds from the surface of the choroid,

including among them portions of the ciliary muscle. Stain the shreds with hæmatoxylin and mount them in glycerine. Sketch the branched pigment-cells, the elastic network, the mode of attachment of the fibres of the ciliary muscle, etc.

7. Examine injected preparation of choroid and iris. Mount portions of the choroid coat and iris from an eye (preferably of an albino rabbit or rat), the blood-vessels of which have been injected. Make sketches showing the arrangement of the capillaries and veins.

8. Examine teased preparation of human retina. Break up with needle in a drop of glycerine a minute fragment of retina which has been placed in 1 per cent. osmic acid solution for some hours, and has subsequently been kept in dilute glycerine. Complete the separation of the retinal elements by tapping the cover-glass. Draw carefully under a high power some of the isolated elements—*e.g.*, the rods and cones with their attached fibres and nuclei, the inner granules, the ganglion-cells, the fibres of Müller, hexagonal pigment-cells, etc. In some of the fragments the arrangement of the elements in the retinal layers may be made out even better than in actual sections. If fresh human retina from an eye removed in operation cannot be obtained, a pig's eye may be substituted.

Measure the length and diameter of some of the cones, the length of the cone-fibres and the diameter of some of the outer and inner nuclei.

9. Examine sections of retina of ox or dog, prepared by the Golgi method. A curled-up piece of fresh retina is placed in osmium-bichromate mixture and is subsequently treated with silver nitrate solution. (See Appendix. Cajal's reduced silver method may also be used.)

10. Examine teased preparation of lens. Separate in water the fibres of a crystalline lens which has been macerated for some days in 2 per cent. potassium bichromate. Sketch some of the fibres, together and separate.

THE EYELIDS AND LACRIMAL GLANDS.

The **eyelids** (fig. 608) are covered externally, *i.e.*, anteriorly, by skin, and internally by a mucous membrane, the *conjunctiva*, which is reflected from over the globe of the eye. They are composed in the main of connective tissue, which is dense and fibrous under the conjunctiva, where it forms what is known as the *tarsus*.

Embedded in the tarsus is a row of long sebaceous glands (the *Meibomian glands*, *e*), the ducts of which open at the edge of the eyelid. The rest of the thickness of the eyelid is composed of a somewhat loose connective tissue, which contains the bundles of the *orbicularis muscle* (*b*). In the upper eyelid the *levator palpebræ* is inserted into the tarsus by a fibrous expansion; some bundles of involuntary muscle are also present near the attachment of the eyelid. The skin has the usual structure; it includes small sweat glands and the follicles of small hairs, and, in addition, at the edge of the eyelid, the large hair-follicles from which the eyelashes grow. The epithelium of the conjunctiva palpebræ is columnar, passing at the edge of the lid into the stratified epithelium of the skin; it also becomes stratified in the part which is reflected over the globe of the eye. The nerves of the conjunctiva terminate for the most part in end-bulbs, which in man are spheroidal, and formed chiefly of a small mass of polyhedral cells; but in the calf and most animals they are elliptical (see Lesson XIX).

The **lacrimal glands**.—These are compound racemose glands situated at the outer upper angle of the orbit; they yield a watery secretion. Their alveoli are lined by columnar or polyhedral cells (fig. 609), which are normally

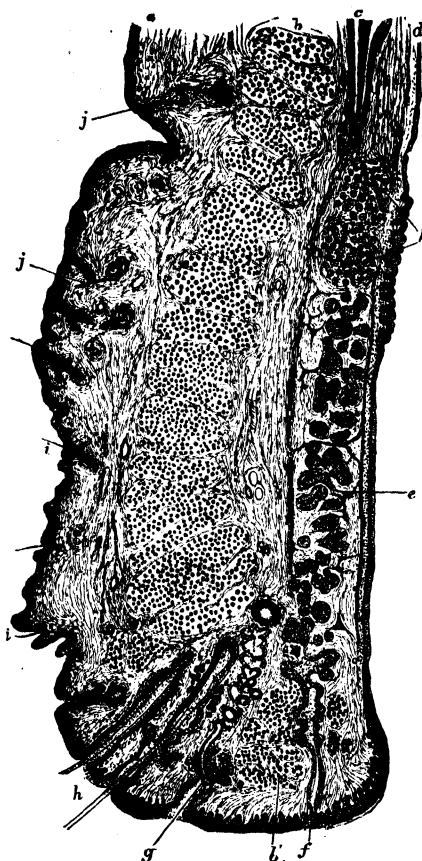


FIG. 608.—VERTICAL SECTION THROUGH THE UPPER EYELID. (Waldeyer.)

a, skin; *b*, orbicularis; *b'*, ciliary bundle; *c*, involuntary muscle of eyelid; *d*, conjunctiva; *e*, tarsus with Meibomian gland; *f*, duct of the gland; *g*, sebaceous gland near eyelashes; *h*, eyelashes; *t*, *t'*, small hairs in outer skin; *j*, *j'*, sweat glands; *k*, posterior tarsal glands.

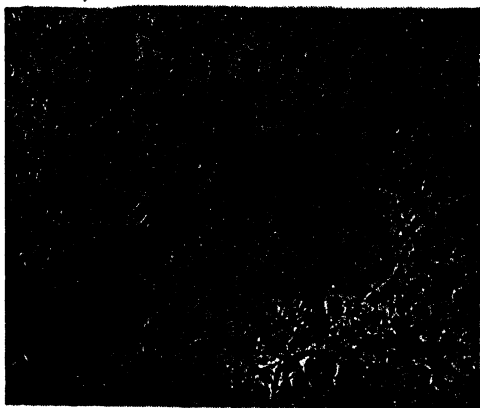


FIG. 609.—ALVEOLI OF LACRIMAL GLAND OF MAN. $\times 200$. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

Preparation by M. Heidenhain.

Some of the cells show secretion granules.

filled with granules, but, after profuse secretion, these disappear, and the cells become shorter and smaller. The ducts, of which there are several, open at the upper fold of the conjunctiva near its outer extremity.

THE SCLEROTIC AND CORNEA.

The **globe of the eye** (fig. 610) is enclosed by three coats, the cornea-sclera, choroid-iris, and retina. It is filled by the vitreous and aqueous humours and the crystalline lens which lies between them.

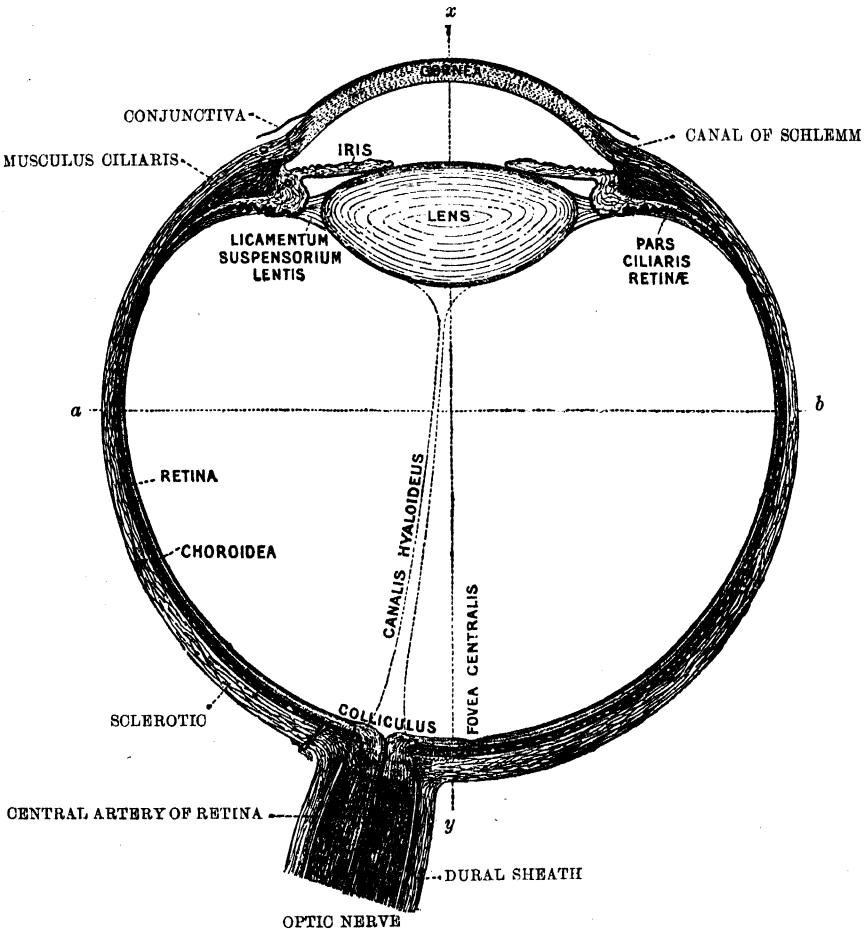


FIG. 610.—DIAGRAM OF A SECTION THROUGH THE HUMAN EYE PASSING HORIZONTALLY NEARLY THROUGH THE MIDDLE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) \times about 4.

a, b, equator; *x, y*, optic axis.

The **sclerotic coat** or *sclera* is composed of dense fibrous tissue, the bundles of which are intimately interlaced. It is thickest at the back of the eyeball.

It is covered externally with a lymphatic endothelium, while internally it is lined by a layer of connective tissue containing pigment-cells, the *lamina fusca*, which give it a brown appearance. At the entrance of the optic

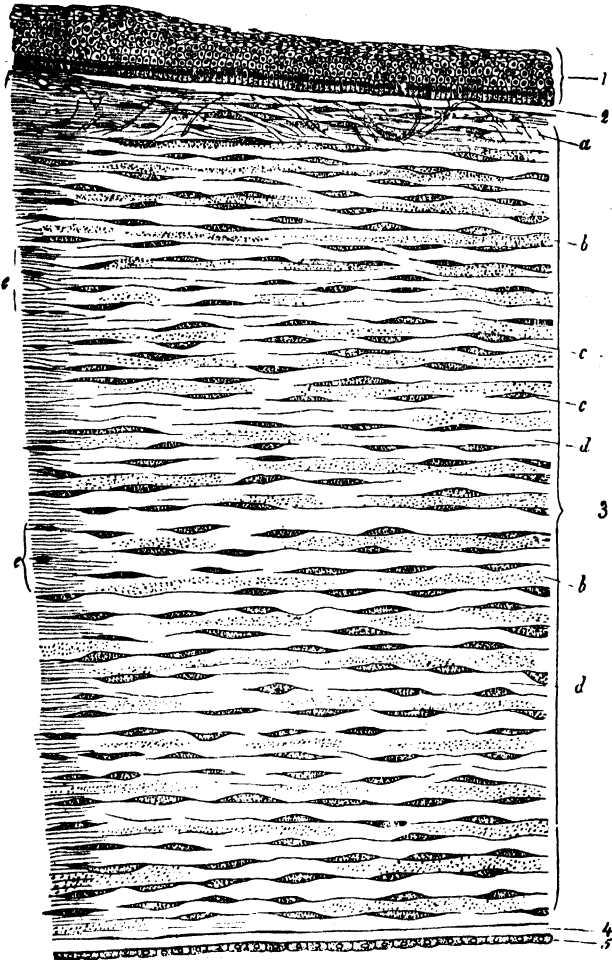


FIG. 611.—VERTICAL SECTION OF HUMAN CORNEA FROM NEAR THE MARGIN.
(Waldeyer.) Magnified.

1, epithelium; 2, anterior homogeneous lamina; 3, substantia propria corneae; 4, posterior homogeneous elastic lamina; 5, endothelium of the anterior chamber; a, oblique fibres in the anterior layer of the substantia propria; b, lamellae with their fibres cut across, producing a dotted appearance; c, corneal corpuscles appearing fusiform in section; d, lamellae with their fibres cut longitudinally; e, transition to the sclerotic, with more distinct fibrillation; f, small blood-vessels cut across near the margin of the cornea.

nerve the sclerotic is prolonged into the sheath of that nerve, the bundles of which, piercing the coat, give a sieve-like aspect to the part (*lamina cribrosa*).

The **cornea** (figs. 611, 612) consists of the following layers (enumerated from before back):—

1. A *stratified epithelium* continues with the epithelium of the conjunctiva.
2. A lamina of homogeneous connective tissue, the *membrane of Bowman*, upon which the deepest cells of the epithelium rest.



FIG. 612.—SECTION OF HUMAN CORNEA SHOWING THE STRATIFIED EPITHELIUM, THE MEMBRANE OF BOWMAN, AND THE SUPERFICIAL LAYERS OF THE PROPRIA. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Photograph.

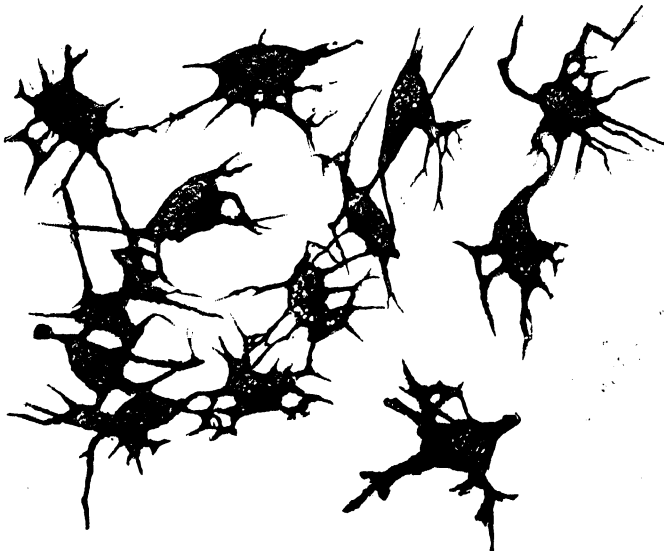


FIG. 613.—CELLS OF RABBIT'S CORNEA STAINED WITH GOLD CHLORIDE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 300$. Photograph.

3. A thick layer of fibrous connective tissue which forms the *proper substance* of the cornea. This is continuous laterally with the tissue of the sclerotic. It is composed of bundles of white fibres arranged in regular laminae, the layer of such bundles crossing one another at right angles in

the alternate laminæ. Between the laminæ lie flattened connective-tissue cells (fig. 613). These are branched and united by their processes into a continuous network; there is, of course, a corresponding network of cell-spaces (fig. 614). In vertical sections the cells appear narrow and spindle-



FIG. 614.—CELL-SPACES OF RABBIT'S CORNEA TREATED WITH SILVER NITRATE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 300$. Photograph. Preparation by H. Pringle.

shaped. In the superficial laminæ near the margin there are a few bundles of fibres which run obliquely towards the surface (fig. 611, a).

4. A homogeneous elastic layer, the *membrane of Descemet*. This completely covers the back of the cornea, but near the angle which the cornea

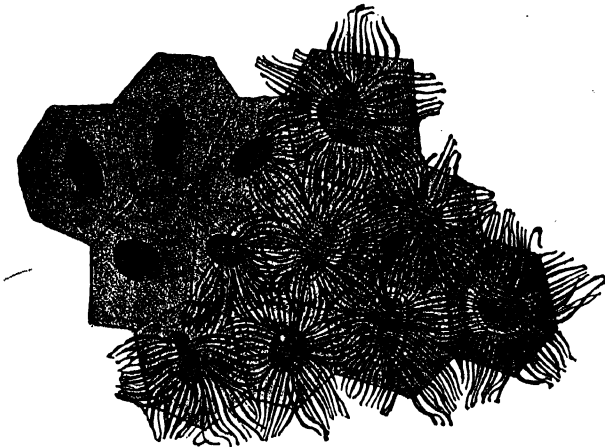


FIG. 615.—EPITHELIUM-CELLS OF DESCOMET'S MEMBRANE. (Smirnow.)

forms with the iris it breaks up into separate fibres, the *ligamentum pectinatum*, which are partly continued into the iris as the *pillars of the iris*.

5. A layer of pavement-epithelium, the *endothelium of Descemet's membrane*, covering the posterior surface of the elastic lamina, and lining the front of the anterior chamber of the eye (fig. 611, 5). At the sides it is

continued over the ligamentum pectinatum into a similar endothelium covering the anterior surface of the iris. The cells of the endothelium of Descemet's membrane are separated from one another by intercellular spaces which with suitable treatment may be seen to be bridged across by bundles of fibrils which pass through the cells (fig. 615).

The nerves of the cornea pass in from the periphery, losing their myelin sheath as they enter the corneal substance. They form a primary plexus

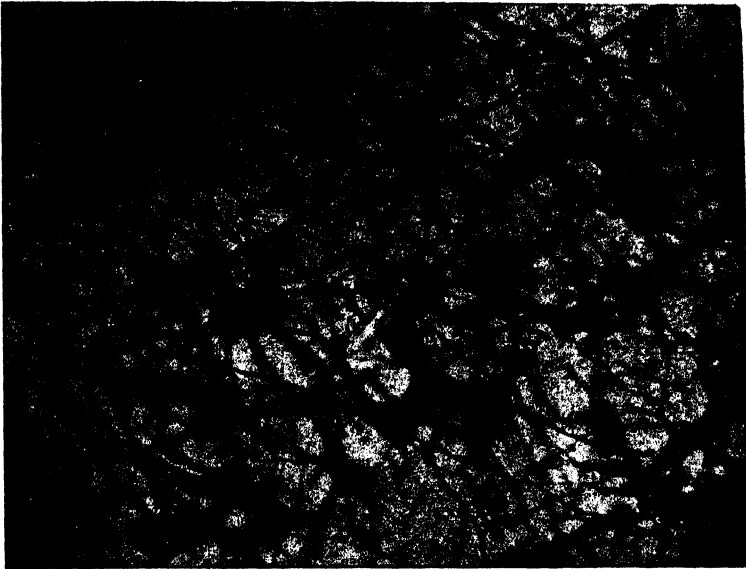


FIG. 616.—NERVE-FIBRILS NEAR POSTERIOR SURFACE OF FROG'S CORNEA.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Photograph. Gold preparation.

in the substantia propria, a secondary or sub-epithelial plexus immediately under the epithelium which covers the anterior surface, and a terminal plexus of fine fibrils which pass from the subepithelial plexus in pencil-like tufts and become lost between the epithelium-cells. In some animals (*e.g.*, frog) there is also a plexus of fine fibrils near the posterior surface under the endothelium of Descemet's membrane (fig. 616). There are no blood-vessels or lymphatics in the cornea, although they come close up to its margin.

THE CHOROID AND IRIS.

The **choroid** or **vascular coat** of the eye is of a black colour in many animals, but in the human eye it is brown. It is composed of connective tissue, the cells of which are large and filled with pigment (fig. 617). It contains in its inner layer a close network of blood-vessels, and in its anterior part the involuntary muscular fibres of the ciliary muscle, which pass backwards from their origin at the junction of the cornea and sclerotic, to be inserted into the choroid. The choroid is separable into the following layers (enumerated from without in):—

1. The *lamina supra-choroidea* (fig. 617, *l.s.*). This is a loose membrane composed of delicate connective tissue pervaded by a network of fine elastic



FIG. 617.—SECTION OF CHOROID (MAN) WITH PART OF SCLERA. ATTACHED TO THE INNER SURFACE OF THE CHOROID IS A PORTION OF THE RETINAL PIGMENT.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$.

sc, lamina fusca of sclera; *l.s.*, lamina suprachoroidea; *v*, larger blood-vessels of choroid; *c.c.*, chorio-capillaris; *m*, basement membrane (membrane of Bruch); *p*, portions of retinal pigment-cells.

fibres, and containing many large branched pigment cells and lymph-corpuscles (fig. 102, p. 100). It is covered superficially by a lymphatic



FIG. 618.—INJECTED BLOOD-VESSELS OF THE CHOROID COAT. (Sappey.)

1, one of the larger veins; 2, 2, small anastomosing vessels; 3, 3, branches connected with capillary network.

endothelium, and is separated from the lamina fusca of the sclerotic by a cleft-like lymph-space which is bridged across here and there by nerves, and by bands of connective tissue.

2. The *vascular layer* of the choroid (fig. 617, *v* and *c.c.*) resembles the suprachoroidea in structure, but contains the blood-vessels of the coat. In its outer part are the larger vessels (arteries and veins), the veins having

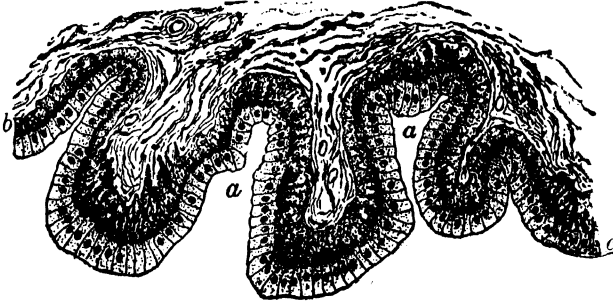


FIG. 619.—SECTION ACROSS THE POSTERIOR PART OF THREE CILIARY PROCESSES. (Piersol.)
× 155.

a, a, recesses between the ciliary processes; *b*, the deeper pigmented layer of epithelium; *c*, the superficial layer of non-pigmented columnar cells. These two layers of epithelium form what is termed the *pars ciliaris retinae*.

a peculiar spiral arrangement; in its inner part (*chorio-capillaris*) are the capillaries, which form an extremely close network with elongated meshes, the capillaries radiating from the extremities of the small arteries and veins in a highly characteristic manner (fig. 618). In the ciliary processes the



FIG. 620—GLANDS OF THE CILIARY PROCESSES AS SEEN AFTER BLEACHING THE PIGMENT COVERING THEM. (E. Treacher Collins.)

vessels have for the most part a longitudinal direction, but there are numerous convoluted transversely disposed capillaries uniting the longitudinal vessels.

3. Lining the inner surface of the choroid is a thin transparent membrane known as the *membrane of Bruch* (fig. 617, *m*).

The sclera, lamina suprachoroidea and vascular layer of the choroid bear the same relation to the retina—which is developed as a hollow outgrowth of the primitive brain—that the dura mater, arachnoid, and pia mater bear to the brain itself.

Ciliary processes.—Anteriorly the choroid coat becomes thickened, partly by the appearance of radially arranged pleats or ridges (ciliary processes

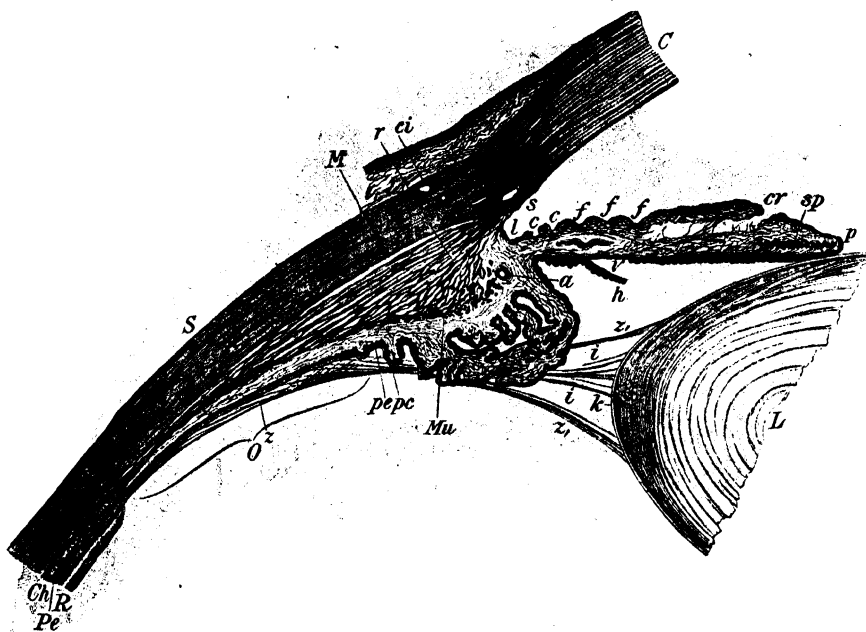


FIG. 621.—SECTION THROUGH THE CILIARY PART OF THE EYE, INCLUDING PART OF THE CORNEA, THE ORA SERRATA, THE IRIS AND THE EDGE OF THE LENS WITH ITS SUSPENSORY LIGAMENT. (Fuchs.)

C, cornea; S, sclerotic; Ch, choroid; R, retina; Pe, its pigmented epithelium; O, pars ciliaris: this is continued over the choroid processes: pe, pc, pigmented and non-pigmented layers of pars ciliaris; L, lens; M, ciliary muscle; r, its radiating (meridional) fibres passing from their origin at the corneo-sclerotic junction; Mu, circular ciliary muscle; ci, artery of sclerotic; s, vein (canal of Schlemm); l, angle of anterior chamber; sp, sphincter pupillae; p, edge of pupil; h, pigmented epithelium of iris (accidentally detached at this point and showing, v, layer of dilator pupillae); c, e, f, f, creases and folds of anterior surface of iris; cr, a fissure in this surface (accidental); a, artery at insertion of iris; k, capsule of lens; t, t, fibres of suspensory ligament inserted into it at the equator; z, fibres of zonula of Zinn passing into suspensory ligament of lens at z'.

with intervening grooves), partly by the development of a ring of muscle, the ciliary muscle, which encircles the globe at this part, lying between the sclera and choroid. The ciliary processes are formed, like the rest of the choroid, of highly vascular pigmented connective tissue, but, in place of retina, they are covered internally by two layers of epithelium, the outer layer being thickly pigmented (fig. 619). In the middle and anterior parts the epithelium dips down into the connective-tissue corium in the form of glandular tubes, which in all probability assist in the secretion of the aqueous humour.

In order to bring these *ciliary glands* distinctly into view, it is necessary to bleach the pigment (fig. 620).

The **ciliary muscle** consists of involuntary muscular bundles which arise at the corneo-sclerotic junction, and pass meridionally backwards to be inserted in the choroid (fig. 621, *M*). Many of the deeper-seated bundles take an oblique direction, and these pass gradually into others which run around the circumference of the iris, on a level with the ciliary processes. This set of circularly arranged bundles constitutes the *circular ciliary muscle* of H. Müller (*Mu*); it is most marked in hypermetropic eyes.

The **iris**.—The iris is that part of the vascular coat of the eye which extends in front of the lens. It is continuous with the choroid and has a somewhat similar structure, but its pigment-cells often contain variously coloured pigment. Besides the delicate connective tissue with numerous elastic fibres and blood-vessels of which it is chiefly composed, it contains two sets of plain muscular fibres. The one set forms the *sphincter pupillæ* (figs. 621, *sp.*; 622, *a*), which encircles the pupil; the other set consists of

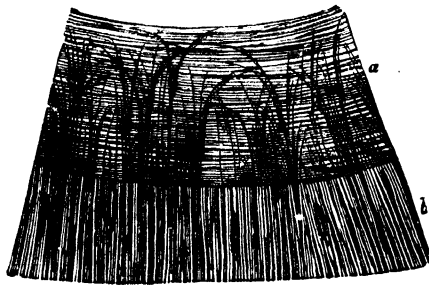


FIG. 622.—SEGMENT OF THE IRIS, SEEN FROM THE POSTERIOR SURFACE AFTER REMOVAL OF THE UVEAL PIGMENT. (Ivanoff.)

a, sphincter muscle; *b*, dilatator muscle of the pupil.

a flattened layer of radiating fibres which extend from the attachment of the iris nearly to the pupil, lying close to the posterior surface and constituting the *dilatator pupillæ* (figs. 622*b*, 624).

The muscular tissue of the iris is developed from the epithelium at the back of the iris.

The back of the iris is covered by a thick double layer of pigmented epithelium, the *uvea* (fig. 624), continuous with the epithelium of the pars ciliaris retinæ.

The blood-vessels of the iris converge towards the pupil. Near the pupil the small arteries form an anastomotic circle, from which capillaries arise and pass still nearer the pupil, around which they form a close capillary network.

A large number of nerve-fibres are distributed to the choroid and iris, chiefly to the muscular tissue of those parts (ciliary muscle and sphincter and dilatator pupillæ).

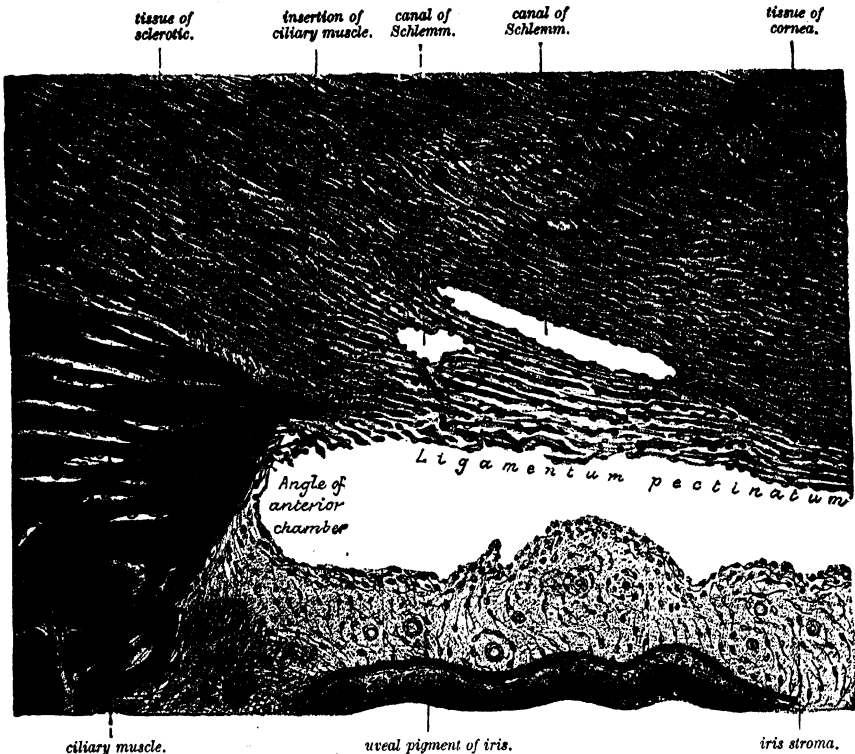


FIG. 623.—SECTION FROM THE EYE OF A MAN SHOWING THE RELATIONS OF THE CILIARY MUSCLE TO THE SCLEROTIC, THE IRIS, AND THE CAVERNOUS SPACES NEAR THE ANGLE OF THE ANTERIOR CHAMBER. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

The figure, which is from a photograph, includes a small portion of the ciliary muscle, the fibres of which are seen to be converging to a point immediately anterior to the angle of the anterior chamber. Here they are attached through the medium of a band of the fibrous tissue of the sclerotic (consisting mainly of circular bundles) to the outer part of the ligamentum pectinatum, which forms a loose tissue with open meshes lying between the canal of Schlemm and the anterior chamber. In the right half of the figure the fibres of the ligamentum pectinatum are seen to be gradually converging towards the posterior surface of the cornea, and somewhat beyond the part shown in this figure they merge into the membrane of Descemet. A communication of the canal of Schlemm, which is double in this section, with the endothelium-lined spaces of the ligamentum pectinatum, is apparent, and also communications between the last-named spaces and the anterior chamber.

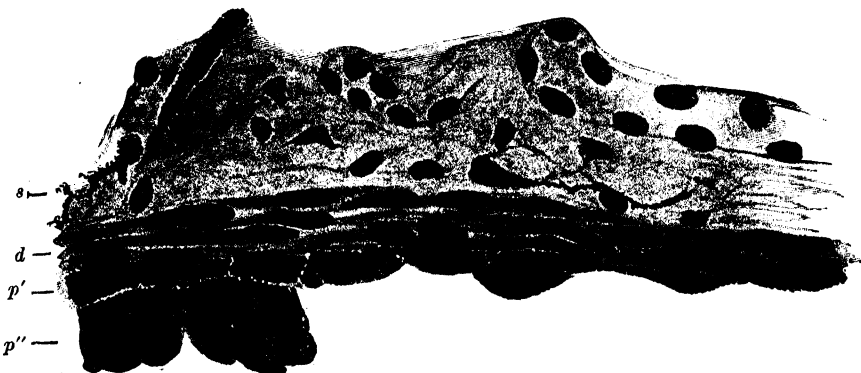


FIG. 624.—SECTION OF POSTERIOR LAYERS OF HUMAN IRIS, NEAR ITS ATTACHMENT TO THE CHOROID. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 600$.

s, iris stroma, with connective tissue, branched pigment-cells, and blood-vessels; d, dilator pupillae; p', deeper layer of uveal pigment; p'', superficial layer of uveal pigment; this layer is broken away from the larger part of the section.

THE RETINA.

The **retina** is a part of the grey matter of the central nervous system which has migrated outwards during the development of the embryo. It consists of eight layers shown in the accompanying diagram (fig. 625), numbered as they occur from within out.

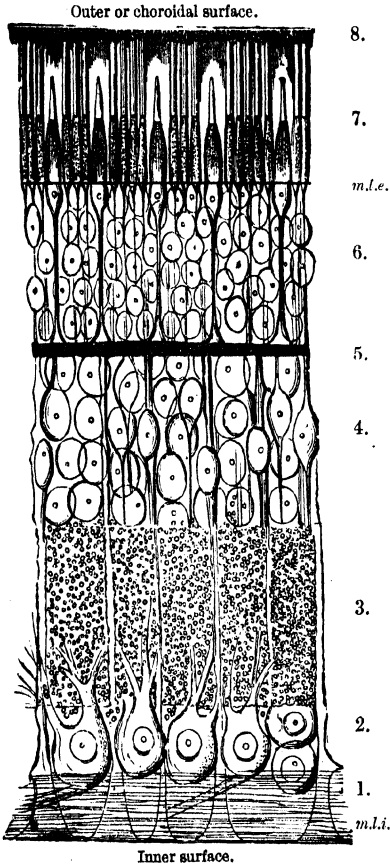


FIG. 625.—DIAGRAMMATIC SECTION OF THE HUMAN RETINA. (M. Schultze.)

- 1, Layer of optic nerve-fibres; 2, layer of optic nerve-cells; 3, inner synapse or molecular layer; 4, layer of inner granules or bipolars; 5, outer synapse or molecular layer; 6, layer of outer granules (outer nuclear layer); 7, layer of rods and cones; 8, layer of pigment-cells; *m.l.e.*, *membrana limitans externa*.

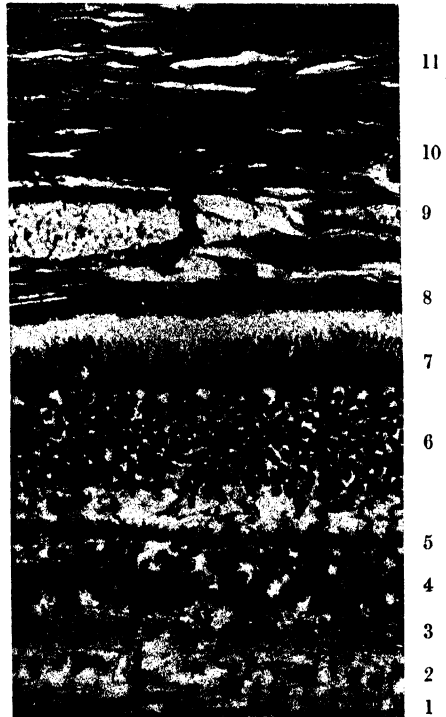


FIG. 626.—SECTION OF RETINA, CHOROID AND PART OF SCLEROTIC: MAN. (Preparation and photograph by W. Chesterman.) Low power.

- 1 to 8, the layers of the retina, as enumerated in the previous figure; in addition: 9, choroid; 10, lamina suprachoroidea; 11, sclera.

The inner surface of the retina rests upon the hyaloid membrane of the vitreous humour. It is formed of the united bases of the fibres of Müller, which will be afterwards described. The outer surface abuts against the choroid coat (fig. 626).

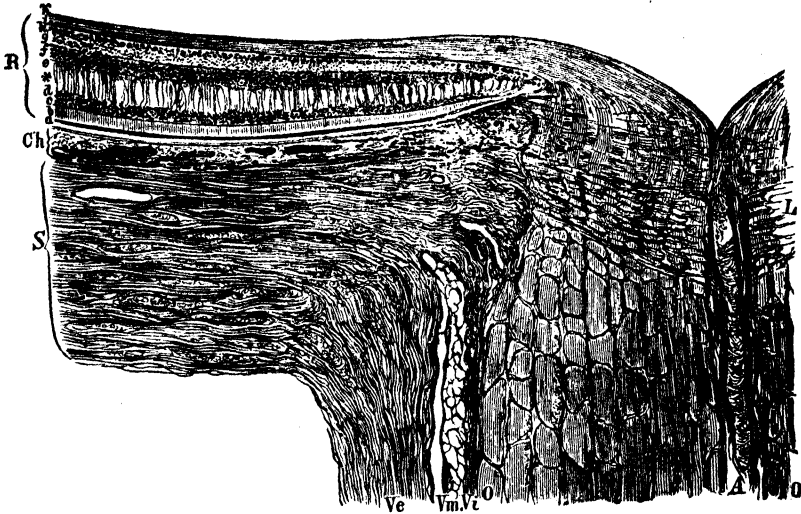


FIG. 627.—SECTION THROUGH THE COATS OF THE EYEBALL AT THE ENTRANCE OF THE OPTIC NERVE. (Toldt.)

Ve, dural sheath; *Vm*, arachnoidal sheath, and *Vi*, pia-matral sheath of the optic nerve, with lymph-spaces between them; *O*, nerve bundles; *L*, lamina cribosa; *A*, central artery; *S*, sclerotic; *Ch*, choroid; *R*, retina. The small letters refer to the various parts of the retina, *b* being the layer of rods and cones, *r* rod- and cone-fibres, *t*, optic nerve-fibres, and *k* the hyaloid membrane of the vitreous humour.

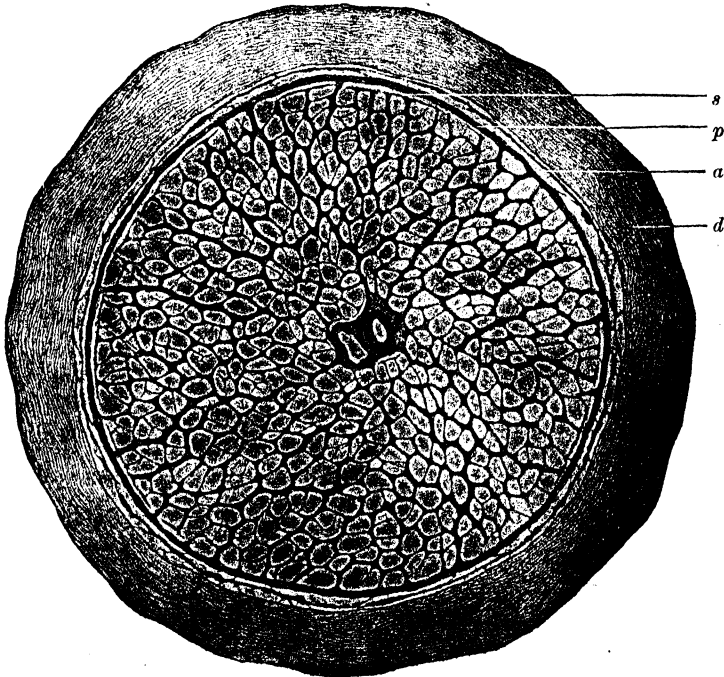


FIG. 628.—SECTION OF OPTIC NERVE: MAN. (Greeff.) $\times 24$.

The section is taken near the junction with the globe. *d*, sheath derived from dura; *a*, sheath from arachnoid; *p*, from pia mater; *s*, a layer of superficial neuroglia.

1. The *layer of nerve-fibres* is formed by the expansion of the optic nerve after it has passed through the coats of the eye (fig. 627). The optic nerve differs from other cerebro-spinal nerves in being made up *not* of separate cylindrical bundles of funiculi, but of one large bundle, covered with a thick sheath and subdivided by numerous interlacing septa into portions of irregular size and shape (fig. 627). Developmentally it is a tract of white matter of the central nervous system. Its fibres, numbering perhaps 1,000,000 in man (Krause), accordingly have no neurolemma and no nodes of Ranvier. A section across the nerve taken near its entrance into the globe shows a

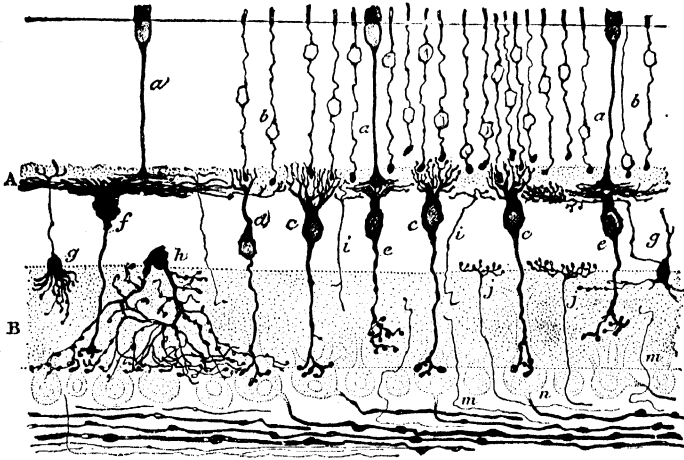


FIG. 629.—SECTION OF DOG'S RETINA, PREPARED BY THE GOLGI METHOD. (R. y Cajal.)

a, cone-fibres; *b*, rod-fibres and nuclei; *c*, *d*, bipolar cells (inner granules) with vertical ramifications of their outer processes or dendrons; in the centre of the ramification lie the enlarged ends of rod-fibres; *e*, other bipolars with flattened ramifications abutting against ramified ends of cone-fibres; *f*, large bipolar with flattened ramifications; *g*, inner granule-cell sending an axon towards the rod- and cone-fibres; *h*, amacrine cell with diffuse arborisation of its processes in inner molecular layer; *i*, *j*, *m*, centrifugally conducting nerve-fibrils passing respectively to outer molecular, inner nuclear, and inner molecular layers; *n*, ganglionic cells with axons passing into nerve-fibre layer; A, outer synapse layer; B, inner synapse layer.

central strand of connective tissue containing the central retinal artery and vein which pass obliquely into the nerve a few millimetres from the back of the eyeball. The sheath of the nerve has a composite structure, being formed, externally, of a thick fibrous membrane continuous proximally with the dura mater and, distally, with the sclera, internally, of a membrane continuous proximally with the pia mater, while between the two is a space containing a prolongation of the arachnoid; the space itself is continuous with the subdural and subarachnoid spaces of the cranial cavity. The nervous tissue is greatly diminished at the lamina cribrosa owing to the disappearance of the myelin sheath of the nerve-fibres; these are continued into the retina as axis-cylinders only. At its entrance the nerve forms a slight eminence, the *colliculus nervi optici*, with a central depression. The layer of nerve-fibres becomes gradually thinner towards the anterior part of the retina.

The nerve-fibres are processes of the cells of the next or ganglionic layer

and are passing centripetally to enter the brain ; some, however, are centrifugal and are derived from cells in the brain : these traverse the ganglionic and molecular layers to form a terminal arborisation in the inner nuclear layer (fig. 629, *i, j, m*, and fig. 630).

2. The *layer of optic nerve-cells*, or *ganglionic layer*, is composed of nerve-cells somewhat like the cells of Purkinje of the cerebellum. They vary in

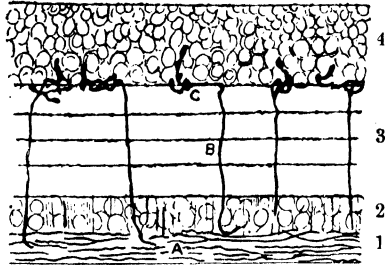


FIG. 630.—SECTION THROUGH THE INNER LAYERS OF THE RETINA OF A BIRD, PREPARED BY THE GOLGI METHOD. (R. y Cajal.)

A, nerve-fibres of optic nerve layer ; B, some of these fibres passing through the inner molecular layer to end in an arborisation (C) at the junction of the inner synapse and inner nuclear layers. The layers in this and in the two succeeding illustrations are numbered in correspondence with the layers in fig. 625.

size, although those of large size are prevalent in most parts of the retina. But in the yellow spot smaller nerve-cells are met with, and here they may be several deep. The cells have a fine axis-cylinder process prolonged into a fibre of the layer of optic nerve-fibres and a thick branching process, the ramifications of which terminate in the inner synapse layer in flattened arborisations at different levels (fig. 631, A, B, C).

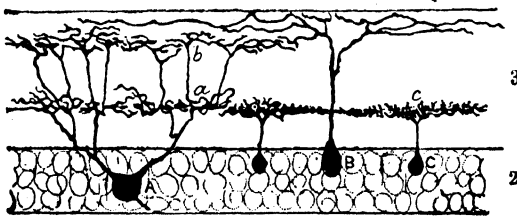


FIG. 631.—SECTION ACROSS THE MOLECULAR AND GANGLIONIC LAYERS OF A BIRD'S RETINA, PREPARED BY THE GOLGI METHOD. (R. y Cajal.)

Three or four ganglionic cells, A, B, C, and the terminal arborisations of their dendrons, *a, b, c*, in the molecular layer, are shown.

3. The *inner synapse layer* or *inner molecular layer* is comparatively thick. It has an appearance very like parts of the grey matter of the nerve-centres. A few small cells are scattered through it, but it is mainly occupied by processes of the optic nerve-cells and of the inner granules which form synapses within it ; it is also traversed by centrifugal fibres from the optic nerve layer, as well as by the fibres of Müller.

4. The *layer of inner granules* (also termed *inner nuclear layer*) is mainly

composed of bipolar nerve-cells containing large nuclei. One process (the axon) of each of these cells (fig. 629) extends inwards into the inner molecular layer where it spreads out into a terminal arborisation. These arborisations occur at different levels in the layer, forming synapses with the optic nerve-cells. Another process, the dendron, is directed outwards, and arborises in the outer molecular layer, where it forms synapses with the terminations of the rod- and cone-fibres. It has been shown by Ramón y Cajal that there are two kinds of bipolars, one kind (*rod-bipolars*, fig. 629, *c* and *d*) being connected externally with the rods of the retina, and passing inwards to ramify over the bodies of the nerve-cells; whilst the others

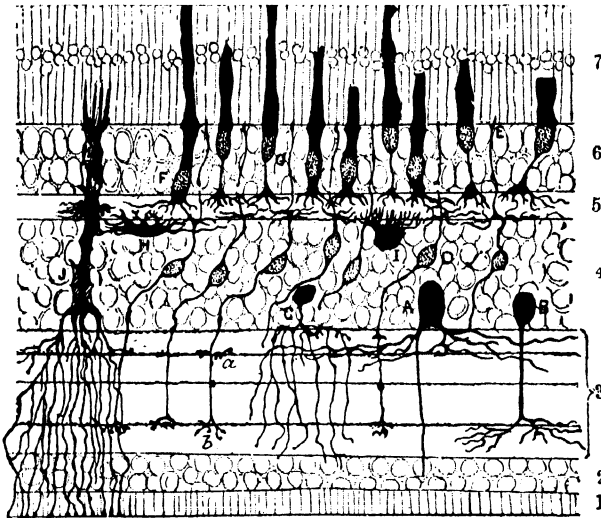


FIG. 632.—SECTION OF A BIRD'S RETINA, PREPARED BY THE GOLGI METHOD.
(R. y Cajal.)

A, large (amacrine) cell of inner nuclear layer; B, C, smaller amacrine cells; D, small bipolar nerve-cells with the one process ramifying in the inner molecular layer, and the other one ramifying in the outer molecular layer and extending (E) as far as the rods and cones as a fibre of Landolt; F, G, rod- and cone-nuclei respectively; H, I, cells with dendrons ramifying in outer molecular layer; J, fibre of Müller.

(*cone-bipolars*, *e*) are connected with the cone-fibres, and ramify in the middle of the inner molecular layer. The outwardly directed processes of the cone-bipolars are, in some animals, but not in mammals, continued as far as the external limiting membrane, where each ends in a free extremity, the *fibre of Landolt* (fig. 632, *E*). Besides these bipolar nerve-cells, there are other larger inner granules (spongioblasts) which are different in character, having ramified processes which extend into the inner molecular layer (figs. 629, *h*; 632, A, B, *c*), in which also their bodies are often partly embedded. The cells in question have been regarded as of the nature of neuroglia-cells, but according to Cajal they are probably nerve-cells. He termed them *amacrine-cells*, since he believed them to be destitute of an axon-process; but some of the amacrine-cells have since been noticed to give off, besides the branching processes or dendrons which ramify in the molecular layer, an axis-cylinder

process extending into the nerve-fibre layer. There are also certain cells in the outer part of the granule layer which send their processes entirely into the outer molecular layer (fig. 632, H, I). These are the *horizontal cells* of Cajal (spongioblasts of outer molecular layer). The fibres of Müller have nucleated enlargements (fig. 632, J) amongst the bipolars of this layer.

5. The *outer synapse layer* or *outer molecular layer* is thin, and is composed mainly of the arborisations of the inner granules and of the rod- and cone-fibres, as well as of the horizontal cells, which all form synapses in it (figs. 629, 632).

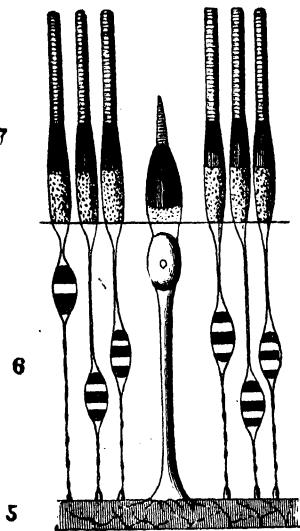


FIG. 633.—DIAGRAM OF THE ROD- AND CONE-ELEMENTS OF THE RETINA. (Schwalbe.)

The designation of the numbers is the same as in fig. 625.

6 and 7. The *outer nuclear layer* and the *layer of rods and cones* are composed of elements which are continuous through the two layers, and they should properly, therefore, be described as one. It has been termed the *sensory epithelium of the retina* (fig. 633). The elements of which this nerve-epithelium consists are elongated cells of two kinds. The most numerous, which may be termed the *rod-elements*, consist of peculiar rod-like structures, the *retinal rods*, set closely side by side, each of which is prolonged internally into a fine varicose fibre or *rod-fibre* which swells out at one part of its course into a nucleated enlargement, and ultimately ends (in mammals) in a minute knob within the outer molecular layer, where it is embedded in the ramifications of the dendrons of the rod-bipolars. The rod consists of two segments, an outer cylindrical and transversely striated segment which during life has a purplish-red colour if the eye has not been recently exposed to light, and an inner, slightly bulged segment which in part of its length is longitudinally striated. The nucleus of the rod-element in some animals, but according to Flemming not in man, has a transversely shaded aspect in the fresh condition (fig. 633). The *cone-elements* are formed of a conical tapering part, the *retinal cone*, which rests directly upon a nucleated enlargement, from the further side of which the *cone-fibre* (fig. 634), considerably thicker (in mammals) than the rod-fibre, passes inwards, to terminate by an expanded arborisation in the outer molecular layer; here it comes into relation with a similar arborisation of the dendrons of a cone-bipolar. The cone, like the rod, is formed of two segments, the outer of which, much the smaller, is transversely striated; the inner, bulged segment being streaked longitudinally. The inner ends of the rod- and cone-fibres, as already stated, form synapses with the peripheral arborisations of the bipolars, and through the latter elements and their synapses in the inner synapse layer connexion is brought about with the nerve-cell and nerve-fibre layers.

The connexion of the retinal elements with one another and through the optic fibres with the central nervous system (anterior corpora quadrigemina and lateral geniculate bodies) is shown diagrammatically in fig. 635.

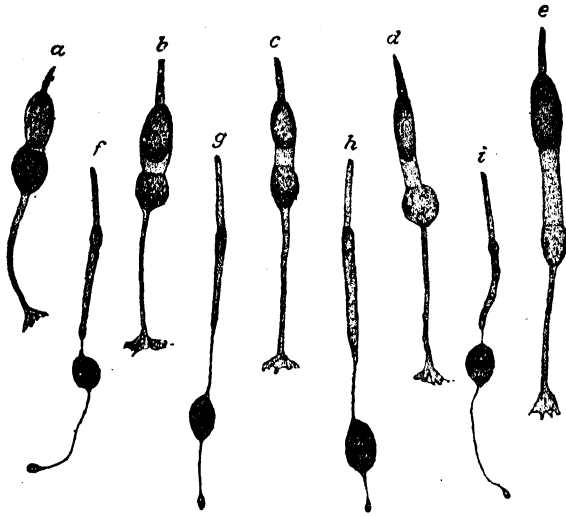


FIG. 634.—ROD- AND CONE-CELLS OF PIG'S RETINA, ISOLATED AFTER FIXATION BY OSMIC ACID. (Kölliker.) $\times 720$.

a to *e*, cone-cells; *h* to *i*, rod-cells. The elements were all detached by dissociation, and their grouping is hence artificial.

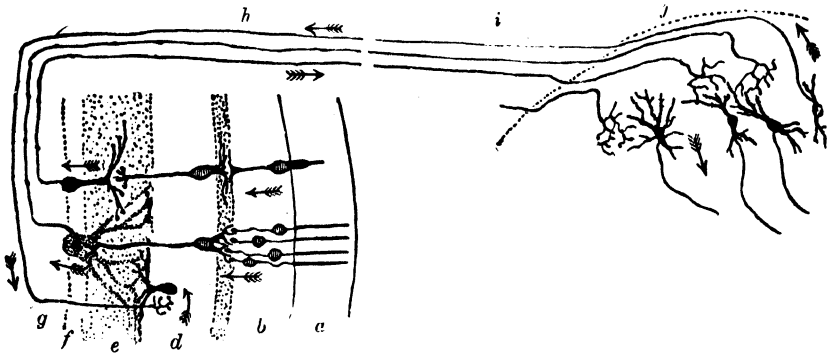


FIG. 635.—DIAGRAM OF THE CONNEXIONS OF THE RETINAL ELEMENTS WITH ONE ANOTHER AND WITH THE CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM. (Cajal.)

a to *g*, layers of retina; *a*, rods and cones; *b*, outer granule layer; *c*, outer synapse layer; *d*, inner granule layer; *e*, inner synapse layer; *f*, nerve-cells giving origin to fibres of optic nerve; *g*, *h*, *i*, a centrifugally conducting fibre, arising from a cell in the brain, and with its terminal arborescence in the retina; *j*, grey matter of corpus quadrigeminum (or of lateral geniculate body).

The rods outnumber the cones, although there is considerable local variation. The cones are most numerous at the yellow spot: at the fovea itself cones only are present. They are fewer in number, and the rods are

proportionately more numerous, in all other parts (fig. 636). The retina of a human eye contains about 120,000,000 rods and 6,500,000 cones (Østerberg).

In birds, reptiles, and amphibia a small oil-globule, often brightly coloured red, yellow, or green, is found in the inner segment of each cone. Many other variations of structure are met with in different animals.

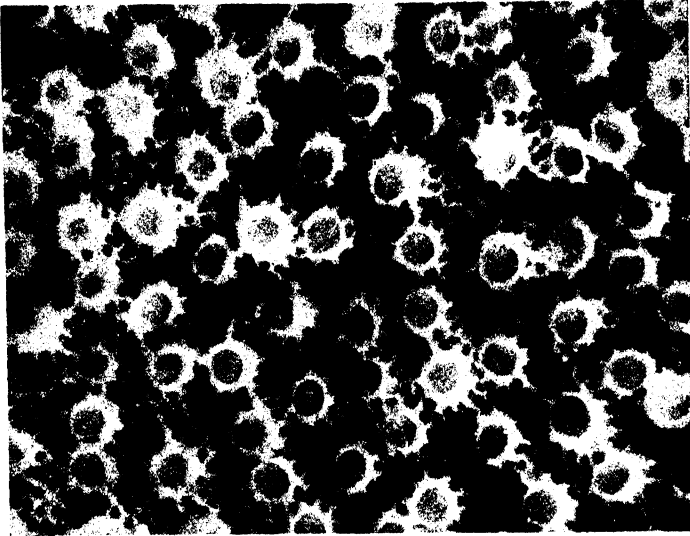


FIG. 636.—TANGENTIAL SECTION AT THE LEVEL OF THE BASES OF THE CONES: FROM THE BACK OF THE HUMAN RETINA NEAR THE MACULA LUTEA. (E. F. Fincham.) $\times 1000$.

8. The *pigmentary layer* forms the most external part of the retina. It consists of hexagonal epithelium-cells (fig. 637), which are smooth externally where they rest against the choroid, but are prolonged internally into thin

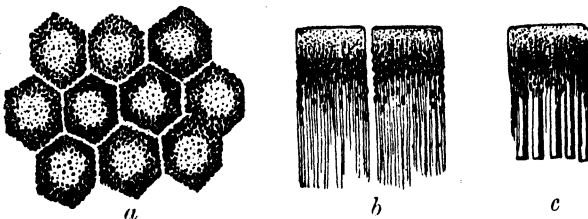


FIG. 637.—PIGMENTED EPITHELIUM OF THE HUMAN RETINA. (M. Schultze.) Highly magnified.

a, cells seen from the outer surface with clear lines of intercellular substance between; *b*, two cells seen in profile with fine offsets extending inwards; *c*, a cell still in connexion with the outer ends of the rods.

lamellæ which extend between the rods. The pigment-granules, many of which are in the form of minute crystals, lie in the inner part of the cell, but after prolonged exposure to light they are found extending along the cell-processes between the rods (Kühne), their function being connected with the

restoration of the purple colouring matter, which has been bleached by the light. This extension of the pigment is accompanied by a shortening of the cones (Engelmann) (fig. 638), and, according to Arey, by a lengthening of the rods. These movements of pigment granules and of rods and cones have never been seen in mammals.

Fibres of Müller.—The fibres of H. Müller (fig. 632, J, and fig. 639) are long neuroglia-cells (such as are found in some parts of the nerve-centres) which pass through several of the retinal layers. Commencing at the inner surface of the retina by expanded bases which unite with one another to form the so-called internal limiting membrane (fig. 640), they pass through all the

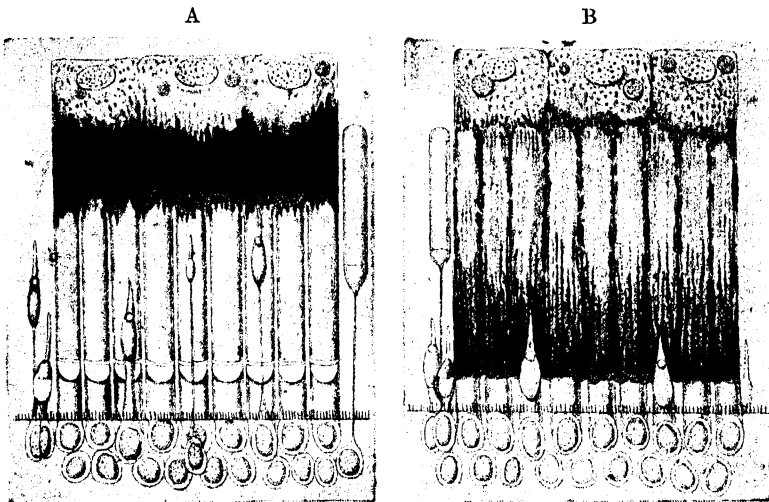


FIG. 638.—A. PART OF A SECTION OF THE RETINA FROM THE EYE OF A FROG WHICH HAD BEEN KEPT IN THE DARK FOR SOME HOURS BEFORE DEATH. (v. Genderen-Stort.)

The pigment is collected towards the outer ends of the rods, which were red, except the outer detached rod, which was green. The cones, which in the frog are much smaller than the rods, are mostly elongated.

B. A SIMILAR SECTION FROM A FROG WHICH HAD BEEN EXPOSED TO LIGHT.

The pigment is extended between the rods, and is accumulated near their bases. The rods were colourless. All the cones were contracted.

layers in succession, until they reach the outer granule layer. Here they branch and expand into a sort of honeycomb tissue (fig. 640) which serves to support the fibres and nuclei of the rod- and cone-elements. At the bases of the rods and cones this sustentacular tissue ceases, being here bounded by a distinct margin which has been called the *external limiting membrane* (fig. 639, *m.l.e.*); delicate sheaths pass from it around the bases of the rods and cones. Each Müllerian fibre, as it passes through the inner granule layer, has a nucleated enlargement (*b*), indicating the cell-nature of the fibre.

There are two parts of the retina which call for special description.

The **macula lutea** or **yellow spot**, with its **central fovea**, is the part of the retina which is immediately concerned with direct vision. It is characterised, first, by its greater thickness (except at the middle of the fovea);

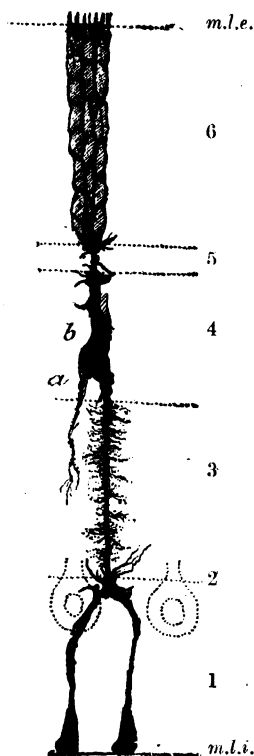


FIG. 639.—A FIBRE OF MÜLLER FROM THE DOG'S RETINA: GOLGI METHOD. (R. y Cajal.)

1, nerve-fibre layer; 2, nerve-cell layer; 3, inner synapse layer; 4, inner granule layer; 5, outer synapse layer; 6, outer granule layer; *b*, nucleus of the fibre; *a*, a process extending into inner synapse layer; *m.l.i.*, membrana limitans interna; *m.l.e.*, membrana limitans externa.

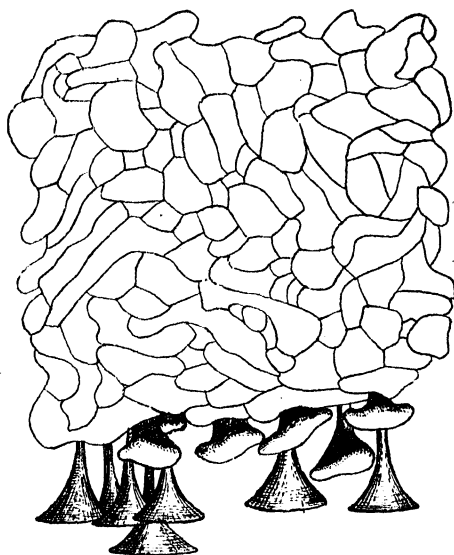


FIG. 640.—INTERNAL LIMITING MEMBRANE OF RETINA TREATED WITH SILVER NITRATE, SHOWING THE OUTLINES OF THE BASES OF THE FIBRES OF MÜLLER. (G. Retzius.)

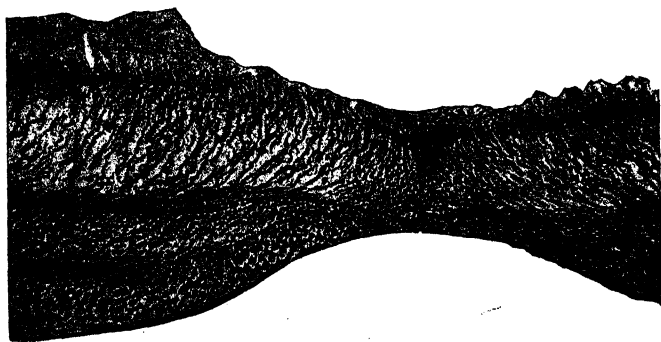


FIG. 641.—SECTION THROUGH THE CENTRAL PART OF THE FOVEA CENTRALIS. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 200$. Photograph. Preparation by C. H. Golding-Bird.

second, by the large number of its ganglion-cells, which are relatively small ; and third, by the number of cones it contains as compared with the rods. In the central fovea itself (figs. 641, 642) there are no rods, and the cones

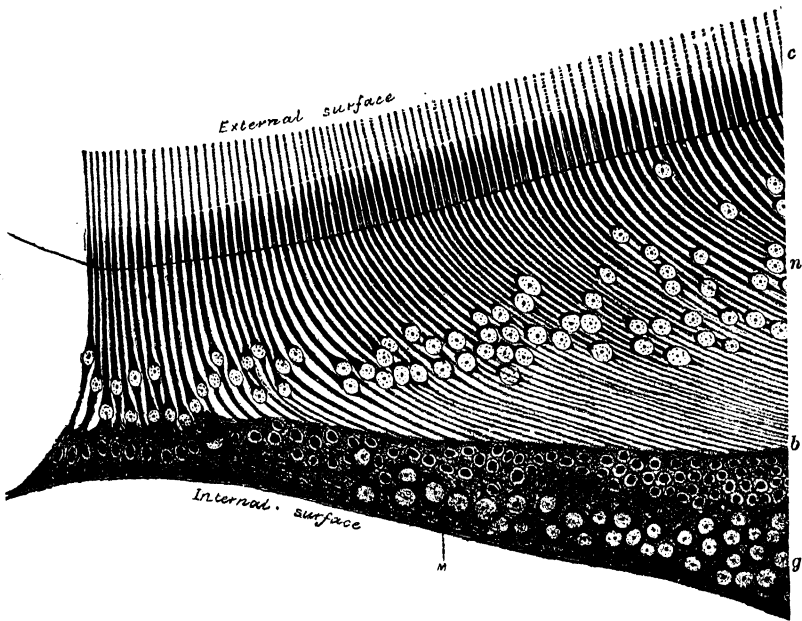


FIG. 642.—DIAGRAM OF THE ARRANGEMENT OF THE RETINAL ELEMENTS AT THE CENTRAL FOVEA. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

M, bases of Müllerian fibres ; *g*, ganglion-cells ; *b*, nuclei of inner granules (bipolars) ; *n*, cone-fibre nuclei ; *c*, cones.

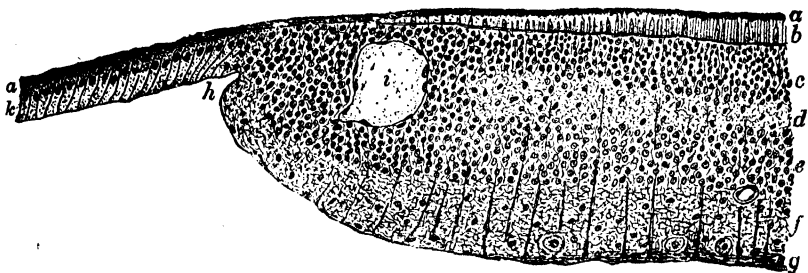


FIG. 643.—SECTION OF HUMAN RETINA AT ORA SERRATA, SHOWING THE ABRUPT TERMINATION OF THE USUAL RETINAL LAYERS AND THE CONTINUATION OF THE RETINAL SHEET AS TWO LAYERS OF CELLS, WHICH FORM THE PARS CILIARIS RETINÆ. (Piersol.)

a, *a*, pigment layer ; *b*, rod- and cone-layer ; *c*, outer nuclear layer ; *d*, outer synapse layer ; *e*, inner nuclear layer ; *f*, inner synapse layer ; *g*, ganglion-cell and nerve-fibre layers ; *h*, section at transition line ; *k*, columnar cells of pars ciliaris ; *i*, a cyst such as occurs occasionally here.

are very long and slender, measuring not more than $2\ \mu$ in diameter. The cones in the human fovea are at a density approaching 150,000 to the square millimetre (Creed and Ruch ; Østerberg) ; all the other layers become

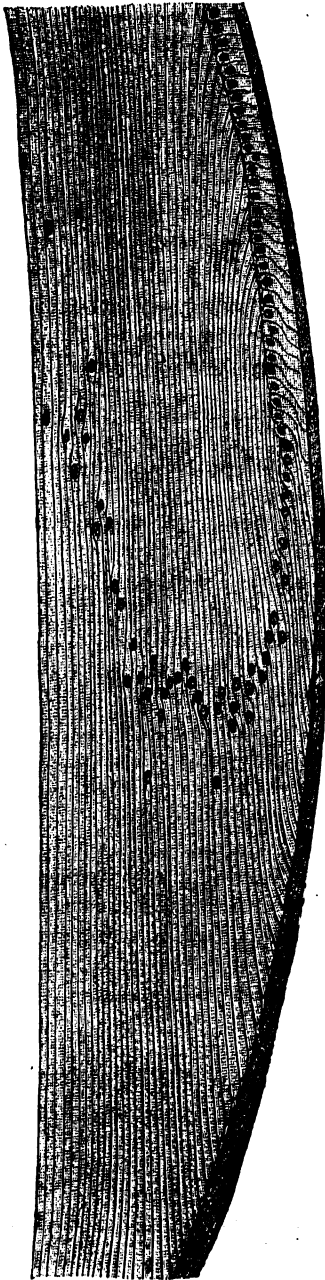


FIG. 644.—SECTION THROUGH THE MARGIN OF THE RABBIT'S LENS, SHOWING THE TRANSITION OF THE EPITHELIUM OF THE CAPSULE INTO LENS-FIBRES. (Babuchin.)

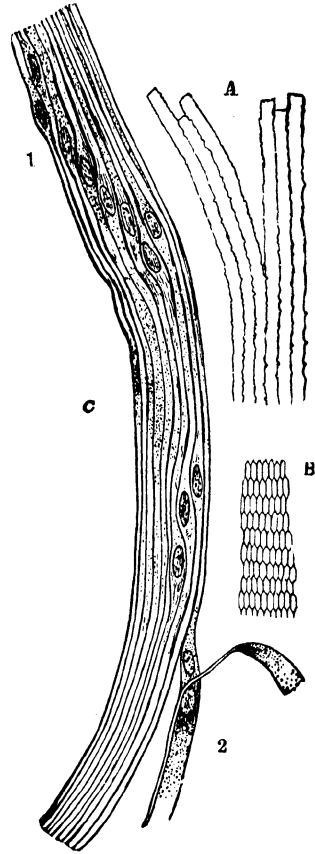


FIG. 645.—FIBRES OF THE CRYSTALLINE LENS. $\times 350$.

A, longitudinal view of the fibres of the lens of the ox, showing the serrated edges. B, transverse section of the fibres of the lens of the human eye. C, longitudinal view of a few of the fibres from the equatorial region of the human lens. Most of the fibres in C are seen edgewise, and towards 1, present the swellings and nuclei of the 'nuclear zone'; at 2, the flattened sides of two fibres are shown. (A and B from Kölliker; C from Henle.)

gradually thinned down almost to complete disappearance, so that the middle of the central fovea is the thinnest part of the retina. Since there are few rods, the outer granule loses in great measure its appearance of being composed of closely packed nuclei, and the cone-fibres are very distinct, forming the so-called *fibrous layer*. Except at the very centre the direction of these fibres is oblique in this part of the retina. At the fovea in man there are almost as many ganglion cells as cone nuclei; 6 mm. from the fovea there are 80 rod- and cone-nuclei per ganglion cell (Chievitz).

The pigmentary layer is thickened over the fovea, and there is also a thickening in the choroid coat here, due to a large accumulation of capillary vessels.

The **pars ciliaris retinae**, which commences at the *ora serrata*, where the retina proper abruptly ends (fig. 643), is composed of two epithelial layers without nervous structures. Of the two layers, the external is a thick stratum of pigmented epithelium formed of rounded cells and continuous with the pigmentary layer of the retina on the one hand, and with the uvea of the iris on the other; the inner is a layer of columnar cells (fig. 643, *k*).

Vessels of the retina.—The retina contains relatively few blood-vessels. The central artery enters and the vein leaves it in the middle of the expansion of the optic nerve. The larger vessels ramify in the nerve-fibre layer. There are capillary networks in this layer and in the inner nuclear layer. Perivascular lymph-spaces surround the veins and capillaries. The sensory epithelium (rod- and cone-cells, and retinal pigment cells) receives no blood-vessels, being nourished from the vessels of the choroid.

THE LENS AND VITREOUS HUMOUR.

The lens.—The lens is a laminated fibrous body enclosed by a transparent elastic capsule to which, around the circumference, the fibres of the suspensory ligament are attached (fig. 621). Immediately within the capsule, in front and at the sides, there is a layer of cubical epithelium termed the epithelium of the capsule, but at the margin of the lens the cells become longer and pass by a gradual transition into the lens-fibres (fig. 644). The *fibres* which compose the lens are long and riband-shaped, with finely serrated edges (fig. 645, *A*); their transverse sections are prismatic (*B*). Many of the superficial fibres are nucleated (*C*), the lens-fibres having originally been developed by the elongation of epithelium-cells.

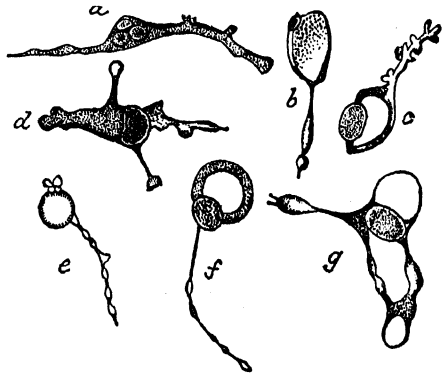


FIG. 646.—CELLS OF VITREOUS HUMOUR.
(G. Schwalbe.)

a and *d*, without vacuoles; *b*, *c*, *e*, *f*, *g*, vacuolated.

The vitreous humour.—This is composed of soft gelatinous tissue, apparently structureless when examined in the fresh condition, but containing fibres and a few scattered cells, the processes of which are often long and varicose, and the cell-bodies distended by large vacuoles (fig. 646). The *hyaloid membrane*, which invests the vitreous humour, is homogeneous and structureless except in the region of the ciliary processes, where it is fibrous in structure, forming the zonula of Zinn and spreading out into the suspensory ligament of the lens (fig. 621). This part of the hyaloid membrane is connected with an annular fibrous portion of the vitreous humour which serves to give additional firmness to the attachment of the fibres of the suspensory ligament of the lens.

LESSONS XLIX. AND L.

THE NOSE AND EAR.

1. **EXAMINE** the following preparations:—Vertical sections of the nasal mucous membrane fixed in Susa or 5 per cent. formol. The sections may be carried either across the upper turbinate bone, after decalcification, or across the upper part of the nasal septum. Make a sketch under the low power. Notice the difference in the character of the epithelium in the olfactory and respiratory parts of the membrane.

2. Teased preparation of the epithelium of the olfactory mucous membrane. A piece of the membrane is placed quite fresh in osmic acid (1 per cent.) for a few hours, and is then macerated for two days or more in thymol water. The epithelium is broken up in dilute glycerine; the cells easily separate from one another on tapping the cover-glass. Notice the two kinds of cells. Sketch some of the cells under a high power. Examine also a section prepared as in § 1.

3. Sections of the external ear (these have been already studied for the cartilage, Lesson XII.).

4. Sections across the cartilaginous part of the Eustachian tube fixed in Susa. Sketch under the low power.

5. Preparation of the membrana tympani. A piece of the membrane, stained with acid fuchsin and gentian violet, is mounted flat in dammar.

Determine the composition of the membrane—*i.e.*, the several layers composing it—by focussing carefully with the high power.

6. Sections across one of the membranous semicircular canals of a fish (skate).

7. Longitudinal sections through the ampulla of a semicircular canal (skate).

Preparations 6 and 7 may be fixed in chromic and osmic acid (see below under 10) and embedded in celloidin.

8. Golgi preparations of the macula of the utricle from the skate.

9. Teased osmic preparations (§ 2) of the auditory epithelium of an ampulla and of the macula of the utricle from the skate.

10. Vertical sections through the middle of the cochlea of a mammal (guinea-pig).

The part of the petrosal containing the cochlea is put quite fresh into 0.2 per cent. chromic acid containing one-fifth its volume of 1 per cent. osmic acid, or into undiluted Flemming's solution. It is left in the fixative two days or more. Decalcification can be effected by the use of the phloroglucin-nitric acid fluid, or by sulphurous acid. (See Appendix.) When decalcified, the preparation is thoroughly washed with running water, and then transferred to alcohols of gradually increasing strength.

The semicircular canals and their ampullæ may also be seen cut across in these sections of the petrosal.

In preparing sections of the membranous labyrinth it is advisable, in order that the epithelium should be kept in position, to embed in celloidin. If the paraffin technique is used, the sections are fixed to the slide by the albumen method. The preparation may be stained in bulk.

THE OLFACTORY MUCOUS MEMBRANE.

The **olfactory region** of the nasal fossæ includes in man the upper and middle turbinate processes and the upper third of the septum. It is covered by a soft vascular mucous membrane of a yellow colour. The remainder of the nasal mucosa is reddish and covered with ciliated epithelium interspersed with goblet cells (fig. 649).

The epithelium of the olfactory mucous membrane (fig. 648) is very thick and is composed of long cells, set closely side by side and bounded superficially by a cuticular lamina, through which the free ends of the cells

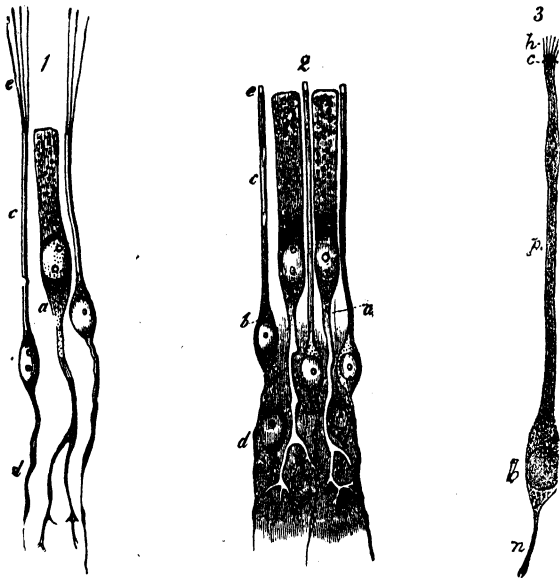


FIG. 647.—CELLS AND TERMINAL NERVE-FIBRES OF THE OLFACTORY REGION.
Highly magnified.

1, from the frog; 2 and 3 from man. In 1 and 2: a, sustentacular cell, extending deeply into a ramified process; b, olfactory cells; c, their peripheral processes; e, the extremities of these, seen in 1 to be prolonged into fine hairs; a, their central filaments. In 3:—h, hairlets; c, free border of cell; p, peripheral process; b, body of cell; n, nerve-fibre. 1 and 2 from M. Schultze; 3 from v. Brunn.

project. The cells are of two kinds (fig. 647): 1. Long, narrow, spindle-shaped, or bipolar nerve-cells, consisting of a larger part or body containing the nucleus, and of two processes or poles, one straight and cylindrical and extending to the free surface, the other very delicate and varicose, passing down towards the corium. Neuro-fibrils have been described both in the body and in the processes of the cell. The position of the nuclear enlargement varies, and with it the relative length of the two processes. The distal or free process terminates in a small clear projection, which passes beyond the cuticular membrane; in amphibia, reptiles, and birds, and also in mammals, it bears fine stiff hair-like filaments (fig. 647, 1 and 3). The

proximal or varicose process becomes lost in the plexus of olfactory nerve-fibres at the base of the epithelium. It is continuous with one of these fibres, and ultimately passes through the cribriform plate of the ethmoid to end in an arborisation within an olfactory glomerulus (see diagram, fig. 604, p. 527). These cells have been termed the *olfactory cells*. 2. Long columnar epithelium-cells, with comparatively broad cylindrical nucleated cell-bodies placed next to the free surface, and forked, branching, tail-like processes

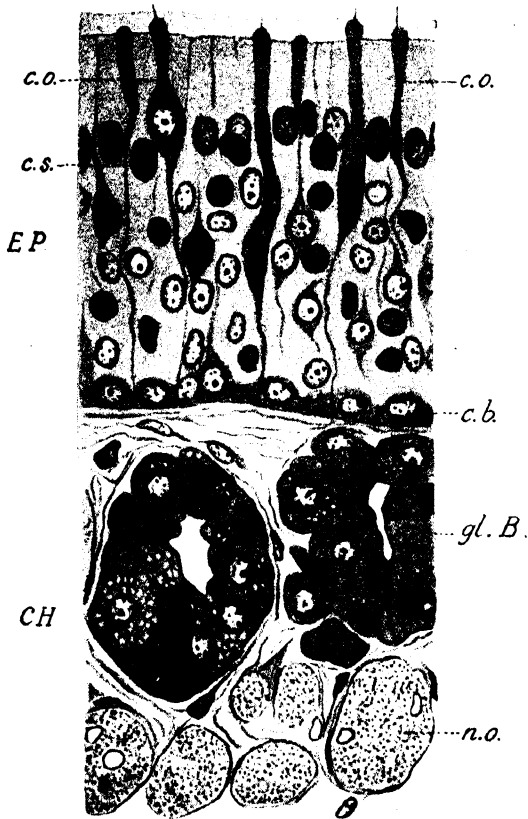


FIG. 648.—OLFACTORY MUCOSA. (After Bouin.) $\times 540$

c.o., olfactory cell with hairlet; *c.s.*, sustentacular cell; *gl. B.*, an alveolus of the gland of Bowman; *n.o.*, fibres of the olfactory nerve; *EP*, mucosa; *CH*, its chorion.
(By permission of Librairie Félix Alcan, Paris)

extending down to the corium. These are regarded not as sensory epithelium-cells, but merely as serving to support the proper olfactory cells. The yellow colour of the olfactory mucosa is due to the lipoid granules that these cells contain at their free ends. They are termed *sustentacular cells*. 3. Tapering cells are present, at least in some animals, in the deeper part of the epithelium. They rest by their bases upon the corium, and project between the other cells, which they help support.

The corium of the olfactory mucous membrane is also thick. It contains, besides numerous blood-vessels and bundles of the olfactory nerve-fibres (which are amyelinate), a large number of granular-looking serous glands

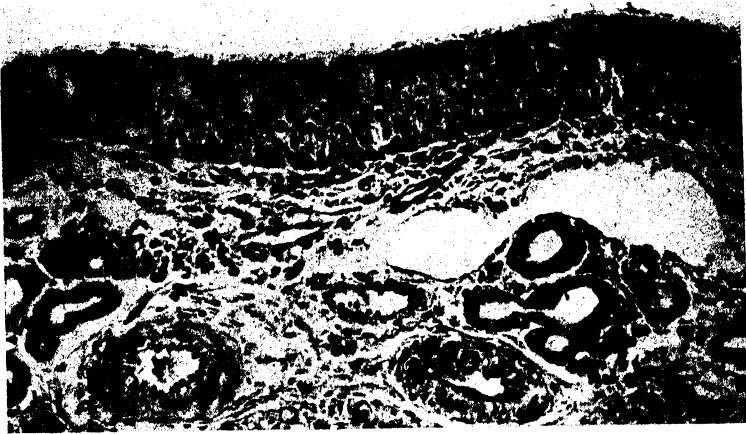


FIG. 649.—SECTION OF NASAL MUCOSA (SHEEP). SHOWING THE EPITHELIUM, CORIUM AND GLANDS IN LATTER. (H. M. Carleton.) $\times 220$.

known as *Bowman's glands*, which open upon the surface by ducts passing between the epithelium-cells.

NASAL MUCOUS MEMBRANE.

This is very similar to the epithelium of the trachea in that it contains both ciliated columnar and goblet cells. Small glands, both mucous and serous, lie in the corium (fig. 649).

The cilia beat towards the pharynx and are covered by a film of mucus; the precise paths taken by these ciliary currents have been clearly established in the monkey by A. M. Lucas.

Nasal sinuses.—These are lined by the same type of mucosa as the rest of the nasal cavity; their corium contains small glands the secretion of which is removed by ciliary action. In the maxillary sinus (antrum of Highmore) the movement of the cilia proceeds towards the ostium in a spiral fashion (A. M. Lucas).

THE EXTERNAL AND MIDDLE EAR.

The **external ear** proper or *pinna* is composed of elastic fibro-cartilage, invested by a thin closely adherent skin. The skin is covered by small hairs, and connected with these are the usual sebaceous follicles. In the lobule there is a considerable amount of adipose tissue; voluntary muscular fibres are in places attached to the cartilage of the pinna, and are seen in sections.

The **external auditory meatus** is a canal formed partly of cartilage continuous with that of the pinna, partly of bone. It is lined by a prolongation of the skin and is closed by the *membrana tympani*, over which the skin is reflected as a very thin layer. Near the orifice the skin has hairs and sebaceous glands; the meatus is also provided throughout the cartilaginous part with convoluted tubular glands—the *ceruminous glands*—of a brownish-yellow colour, which yield a waxy secretion. They represent modified sweat glands of the larger type such as are found in the axilla. Like these the secretion is formed by the partial disintegration of the free ends of the cells. Their structure has already been considered (see p. 297).

The **tympanum** is lined by a mucous membrane which is continuous



FIG. 650.—SECTION ACROSS THE CARTILAGINOUS PART OF THE EUSTACHIAN TUBE.
(Rüdinger.)

1, 2, bent cartilaginous plate; 3, musc. dilatator tubae; to the left of 4, part of the attachment of the levator palati muscle; 5, fibrous tissue uniting the tube to the base of the skull; 6 and 7, mucous glands; 8, 10, fat; from 9 to 11, lumen of the tube; 12, connective tissue on the lateral aspect of the tube.

through the Eustachian tube with the mucous membrane of the pharynx; it is also prolonged into the mastoid cells. The epithelium is cubical and ciliated in some parts, but in others—*e.g.*, roof, promontory, ossicles, and *membrana tympani*—there is a pavement-epithelium.

The **membrana tympani** is a thin membrane formed of fibrous bundles which radiate from a central depression (*umbo*). Within the radial fibres are a few annular bundles. Covering the fibrous membrane externally is a thin layer continuous with the skin of the meatus; covering it internally is another thin layer, derived from the mucous membrane of the tympanic cavity. A few blood-vessels and lymphatics are distributed to the membrane, chiefly in the cutaneous and mucous layers.

The **auditory ossicles** are formed of compact bone covered externally by hyaline cartilage.

The **Eustachian tube** is the canal leading from the tympanum to the pharynx. It is formed of bone near the tympanum, but below, near the pharynx, it is bounded partly by a bent piece of cartilage (fig. 650, 1, 2), partly by fibrous tissue. The latter contains numerous mucous glands (6, 7), which open into the tube, and on the other side a band of muscular tissue (3) which joins the tensor palati. The epithelium is ciliated.

Lymphoid tissue is found in the wall of the tube in its pharyngeal portion—especially in children.

THE INTERNAL EAR.

The **labyrinth**, which is the essential part of the auditory organ, consists of a complex membranous tube lined by epithelium and filled with endolymph,

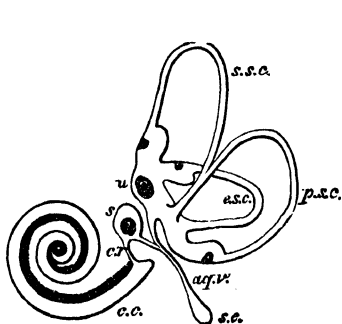


FIG. 651, A.

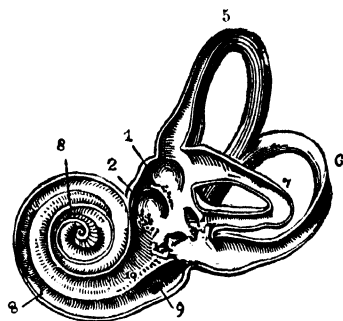


FIG. 651, B.

FIG. 651, A.—PLAN OF THE RIGHT MEMBRANOUS LABYRINTH VIEWED FROM THE MEDIAL ASPECT. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) $\times 2\frac{1}{2}$.

u, utricle, with its macula; *s.s.c.*, *p.s.c.*, and *a.s.c.*, the three semicircular canals with their ampullae; *s*, saccule; *aq.v.*, aqueductus vestibuli; *s.e.*, saccus endolymphaticus; *c.r.*, canalis reuniens; *c.c.*, canal of the cochlea.

FIG. 651, B.—VIEW OF THE INTERIOR OF THE LEFT OSSEOUS LABYRINTH.

The bony wall of the labyrinth is removed superiorly and externally. 1, fovea hemielliptica; 2, fovea hemisphaerica; 3, common opening of the superior and posterior semicircular canals; 4, opening of the aqueduct of the vestibule; 5, the superior, 6, the posterior, and 7, the external semicircular canals; 8, spiral tube of the cochlea; 9, scala tympani; 10, scala vestibuli.

contained within a bony tube—the osseous labyrinth—of corresponding complexity of shape (fig. 651, A and B). The membranous labyrinth does not wholly fill the bony cavity, part of the space being occupied by perilymph. The membranous labyrinth is composed of the *utricle* (*u*), the three *semicircular canals* (each with an enlargement or *ampulla* at one end), the *saccule* (*s*), and the *canal of the cochlea* (*c.c.*). The cochlea is the actual organ of hearing; the utricle, saccule and semicircular canals are organs of equilibration.

The branches of the auditory nerve pass to certain parts only of the membranous labyrinth, viz., the maculae of the utricle and saccule, the cristae of the ampullae, and along the whole length of the canal of the cochlea (the shaded parts in fig. 651, B). At these places the lining epithelium is specially modified to form a sensory or nerve-epithelium; elsewhere it is a simple pavement-epithelium.

The **membranous semicircular canals** and the **utricle** and **saccul**e are composed of fibrous tissue, which is adherent along one side to the endosteum of the bony canal; from the opposite side bands of fibrous tissue pass across the perilymph (fig. 652). Within the fibrous membrane is a thick clear tunica propria, which, in the semicircular canals, may form papilliform elevations in the interior of the tube.

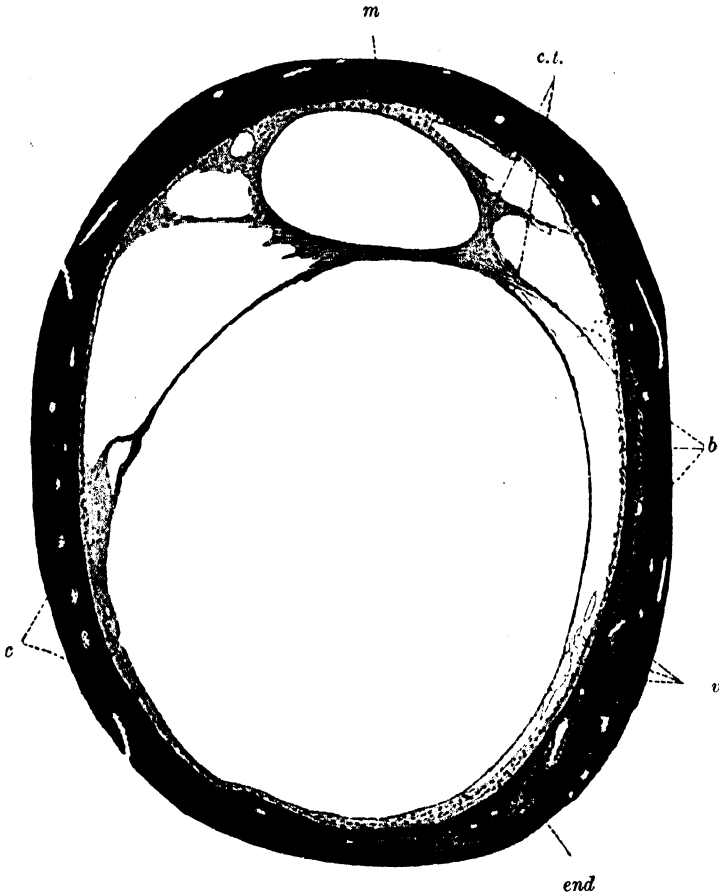


FIG. 652.—SECTION OF SEMICIRCULAR CANAL: NEW-BORN CHILD. (Sobotta.) $\times 55$.
c.t., connective-tissue strands, between membranous canal and endosteum of bony canal; *m*, membranous canal; *b*, wall of bony canal; *c*, remains of fetal cartilage; *end*, endosteum; *v*, blood-vessels.

The places of entrance of the nerve-fibres are marked in each ampulla by a transverse, inwardly projecting ridge or *crista* (figs. 653, 655), in the saccul and utricle by a broader thickening of the tunica propria or *macula*. The epithelium at these places is formed of flask-shaped cells (fig. 654), which are surmounted by long, stiff, tapering hairlets (fig. 653, *h*; fig. 654). Around these *hair-cells* the axis-cylinders of the nerve-fibres ramify (fig. 654); they are therefore—like the gustatory cells of the taste-buds—sensory epithelium—

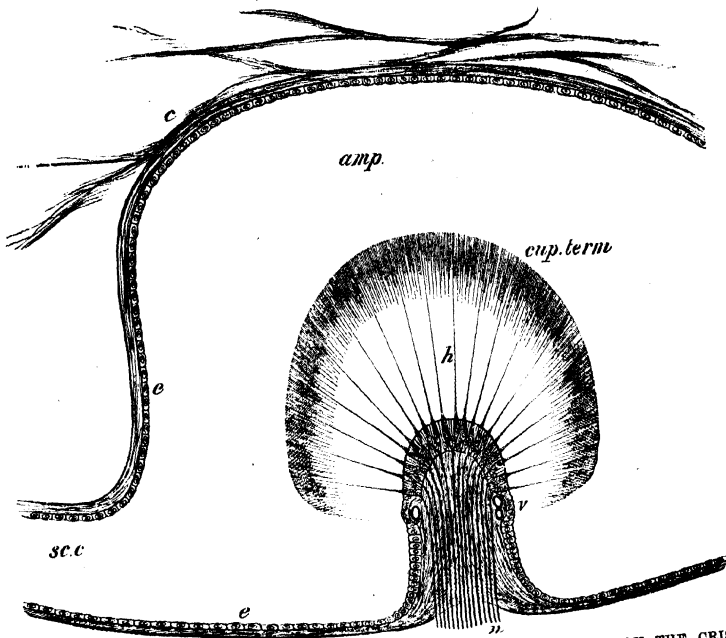


FIG. 653.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF AN AMPULLA OF A FISH THROUGH THE CRISTA ACUSTICA (DIAGRAMMATIC).

amp., cavity of the ampulla; *s.c.c.* semicircular canal opening out of it; *c.*, connective tissue attached to the wall of the membranous ampulla and traversing the perilymph; *e.*, flattened epithelium of ampulla; *h.*, hairs projecting from the columnar cells of the epithelium into the cupula, *cup. term*; *v.*, blood-vessels; *n.*, nerve-fibres entering the base of the crista and passing into the columnar epithelium.

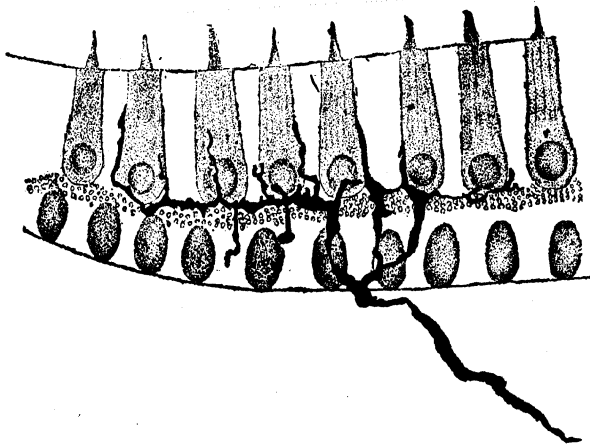


FIG. 654.—NERVE TERMINATIONS IN MACULA: GOLGI METHOD. (v. Lenhossék.)

A



B

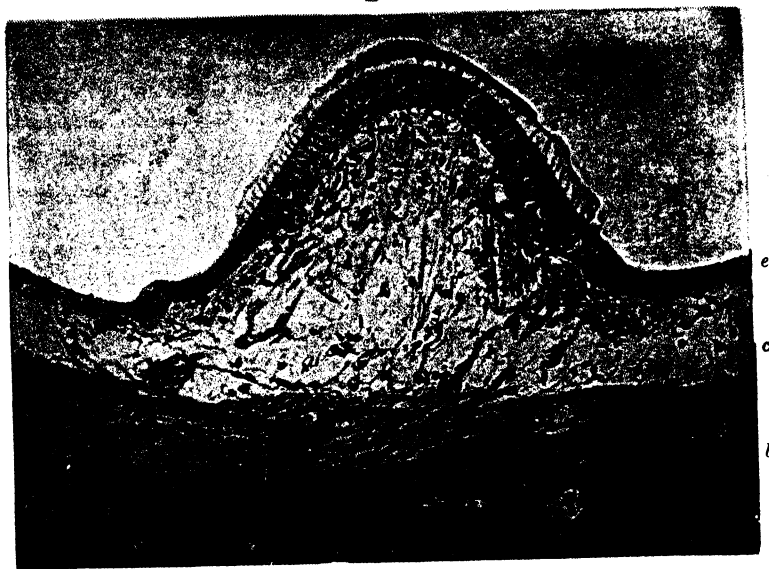


FIG. 655.—LONGITUDINAL SECTION OF AMPULLA OF GUINEA-PIG. Photograph.
Preparation by H. Pringle.

- In A.—The bony wall of the ampulla is seen above, separated from the thin endothelium lining the membranous tube by delicate connective tissue. [A and B are parts of the same section.]
- In B.—*e*, epithelium becoming columnar over the crista, where the cells are furnished with hairlets; *c*, corium of delicate connective tissue, with the nerve-fibres passing to the epithelium; *b*, bone, with canals containing bundles of nerve-fibres.

cells. Between them are a number of thin and somewhat rigid nucleated cells, the *fibre-cells* of Retzius, which rest upon the basement-membrane, and are connected at their free extremity with a cuticular membrane, through which the above-mentioned hairs project.

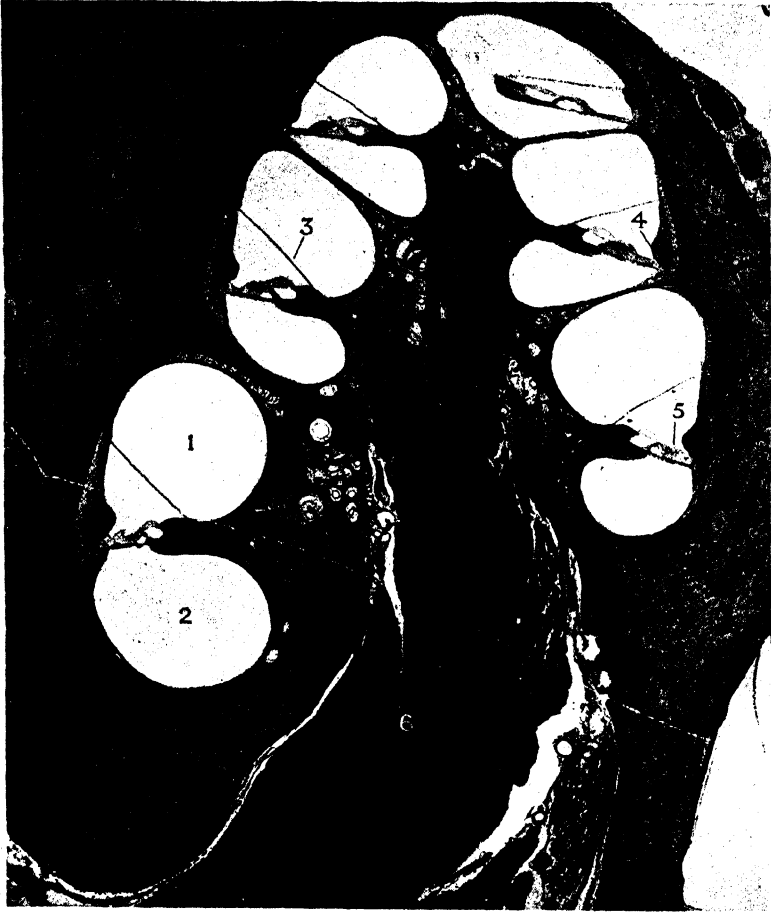


FIG. 656.—SECTION THROUGH THE COCHLEA OF A CAT. Low power.
Preparation and photograph by the Ferens Institute.

1, scala vestibuli; 2, scala tympani; 3, membrane of Reissner; 4, stria vascularis; 5, organ of Corti;
6, nerve fibres of cochlear nerve.

The hairs do not jut freely into the endolymph, but into a soft mucus-like substance, of a dome-like form in the ampullæ, the *cupula terminalis* (fig. 653), and nearly cylindrical in shape in the saccule and utricle where there are a number of crystalline calcareous particles (*otoliths*) embedded in it. In bony fishes these particles are aggregated into a hard polished 'otolith' of considerable size, which rests upon the hairlets.

The **cochlea** consists of a bony tube coiled spirally around an axis which is known as the *columella* (figs. 656, 657). The tube is divided along its length by a partition—formed partly by a projecting lamina of bone, the *spiral lamina*, partly by the flat *basilar membrane*—into two parts or *scalæ*; the upper (supposing the cochlea resting base downwards) being termed the *scala vestibuli*, the lower *scala tympani*; the latter is closed near its lower end by the membrane of the fenestra rotunda through which, in the macerated bone, the cavity of the tympanum communicates with the *scala tympani*. The *scalæ* are lined by endosteum, and are filled with perilymph, continuous with that of the rest of the labyrinth at the commencement of the *scala*

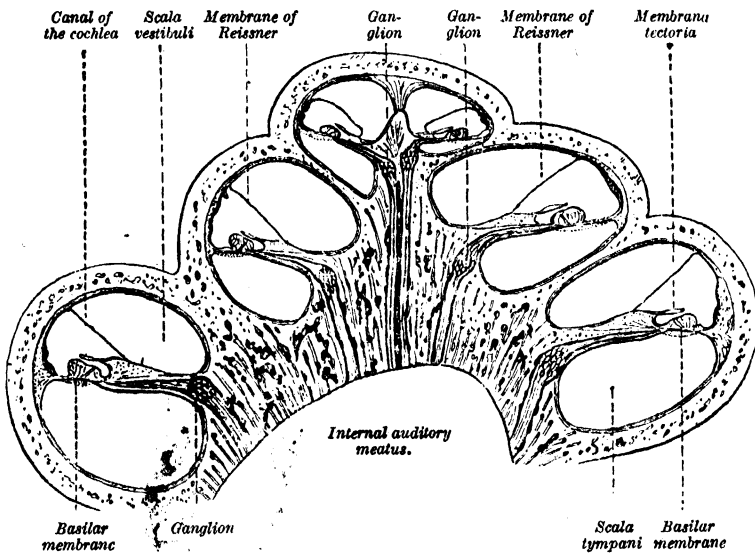


FIG. 657.—VERTICAL SECTION THROUGH THE MIDDLE OF THE HUMAN COCHLEA.
(E. Sharpey-Schafer.)

vestibuli; they communicate with one another at the apex of the cochlea by an opening, the *helicotrema*.

The *scala vestibuli* does not occupy the whole of that part of the bony tube of the cochlea which is above the partition just mentioned. Its outer and lower third is cut off by a delicate connective-tissue membrane, the *membrane of Reissner* (figs. 656 to 658), which springs from near the end of the spiral lamina and passes upwards and outwards to the outer wall, thus separating a canal triangular in section, which is lined by epithelium; this canal represents the membranous labyrinth of the cochlea (*duct or canal of the cochlea*).

The floor of the canal of the cochlea is formed (1) of the extremity of the spiral lamina, which is thickened above by a peculiar kind of connective tissue, forming an overhanging projection known as the *limbus*; and (2) of the basilar membrane, which stretches across from the end of the bony

lamina to the outer wall, and is attached to this by a projection of reticular connective tissue termed the *spiral ligament* (fig. 658).

The *basilar membrane* is composed of stiff straight fibres, which extend from within out, and are embedded in a homogeneous ground-substance. The membrane is covered below by a layer of connective tissue continuous with the endosteum of the *scala tympani*; the modified epithelium which forms the organ of Corti rests upon its upper surface. It becomes gradually broader in the upper turns of the cochlea (rather more than twice as broad in the uppermost as compared with the lowermost turn), and its constituent fibres become therefore gradually longer.

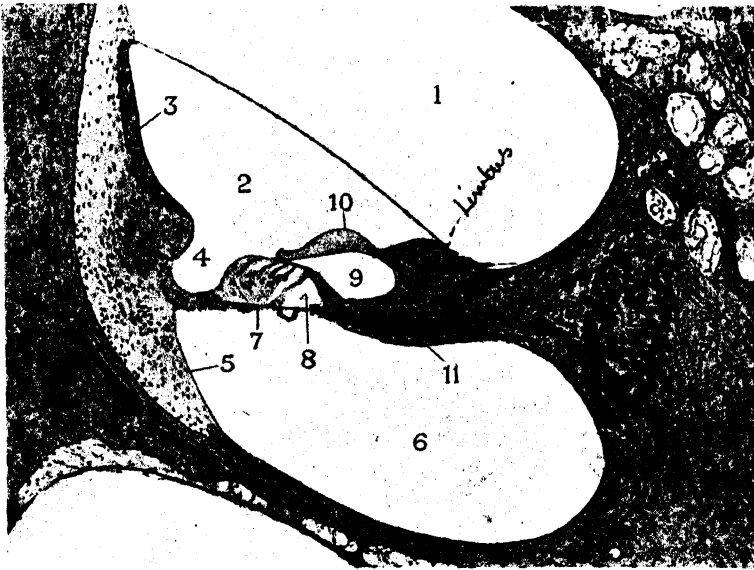


FIG. 658.—SECTION THROUGH A DUCT OF THE COCHLEA OF A CAT. Medium power. (Preparation and photograph by the Ferens Institute.)

1, *scala vestibuli*; 2, cochlear duct; 3, *stria vascularis*; 4, external spiral sulcus; 5, spiral ligament; 6, *scala tympani*; 7, basilar membrane; 8, tunnel of Corti; 9, internal spiral sulcus; 10, *membrana tectoria*; 11, cochlear nerves; 12, spiral ganglion.

The **organ of Corti** (fig. 659) consists of the following structures :—

1. The *rods of Corti*, two series (inner and outer) of stiff, striated structures, of a peculiar shape, the inner somewhat like a human ulna, the outer like a swan's head and neck (fig. 660). They rest by one extremity (the foot) on the basilar membrane a short distance apart, and are inclined towards one another, their larger ends (heads) being fixed together; the series of rods thus encloses a sort of tunnel, the floor of which is formed by a part of the basilar membrane (fig. 661). Close to their feet may usually be seen the remains of the cells from which they have been formed. The inner rods are narrower and rather more numerous than the outer. The head of each outer rod has a process which extends outwards and is known as the *phalangeal process*. This forms part of the reticular lamina.

2. A *reticular lamina* (fig. 661, *l.r.*), a cuticular structure extending like a wire net over the outer epithelium-cells of the organ of Corti, composed



FIG. 659.—SECTION THROUGH THE ORGAN OF CORTI OF A CAT. High power.
(Preparation and photograph by the Ferenz Institute.)

1, membrana tectoria; 2, inner hair cell; 3, outer hair cell; 4, cells of Deiters; 5, basilar membrane; 6, blood-vessel; 7, cochlear nerves.

of two or three series of stiff fiddle-shaped rings (*phalanges*) cemented together in such a manner as to leave square or oblong apertures through which the hairlets of the outer hair-cells project.

3. The *outer hair-cells* (fig. 659) placed external to the rods of Corti. These are flask-shaped cells, forming three series in most mammals (fig. 659), but four in man, except in the upper part of the cochlea, where there are five rows. The free extremity of each cell is surmounted by a bundle of short *auditory*

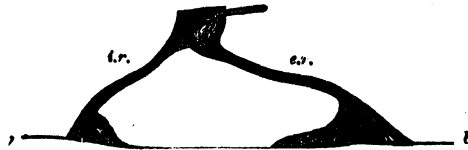


FIG. 660.—A PAIR OF RODS OF CORTI, FROM THE RABBIT'S COCHLEA, IN SIDE VIEW. (E. Sharpey-Schafer). Highly magnified.

b, *b*, basilar membrane; *i.r.*, inner rod; *e.r.*, outer rod. The nucleated protoplasmic masses at the feet, which represent the cells from which the rods have been formed, are also shown.

hairlets, and projects through one of the apertures in the reticular lamina; the fixed extremity is prolonged into a stiff cuticular process, which is attached to the basilar membrane. Between the hair-cells are other or sustentacular cells which are tapered in the same manner, but rest by their larger end upon the basilar membrane, and are prolonged above into a

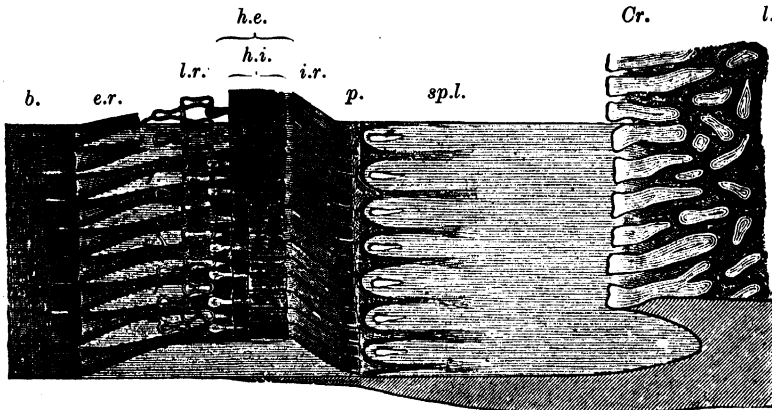


FIG. 661.—SEMI-DIAGRAMMATIC VIEW OF PART OF THE BASILAR MEMBRANE AND TUNNEL OF CORTI OF THE RABBIT, FROM ABOVE AND THE SIDE. (E. Sharpey-Schafer.) Much magnified.

l., limbus; *Cr.*, extremity or crest of limbus with tooth-like projections; *b.*, basilar membrane; *sp.l.* spiral lamina with *p.*, perforations for the passage of nerve-fibres; *i.r.*, fifteen of the inner rods of Corti; *h.i.*, their flattened heads seen from above; *e.r.*, nine outer rods of Corti; *h.e.*, their heads, with the phalangeal processes extending outward from them and forming, with the two rows of phalanges, the lamina reticularia, *i.r.*

cuticular process which is attached to the reticular lamina (*cells of Deiters*, figs. 659, 662).

4. The *inner hair-cells* (fig. 659), placed internal to the rods of Corti. They form a single series of columnar cells surmounted by auditory hairlets, lying in close apposition to the inner rods. The number of hairlets per cell,

in both inner and outer series, is estimated for man at about 100, and at 60 for anthropoids; but there are only 8 to 12 in the lower mammals.

The remaining epithelium-cells have no important characteristics. They are long and columnar next to the outer hair-cells, but soon diminish in size and become cubical; in this form they are continued over the outer wall of the cochlear canal. Here they cover a very vascular membrane, the *stria vascularis* (fig. 658), which is frequently pigmented; its capillary blood-vessels penetrate between the epithelium-cells. Internal to the inner hair-cells the epithelium also soon becomes cubical; it is prolonged over the limbus of the spiral lamina into the epithelium of Reissner's membrane which is of the pavement variety.

The *membrana tectoria* (figs. 658, 659, 663) is a soft, fibrillated structure, which is attached along the upper surface of the limbus where it is thin: it lies like a pad over the organ of Corti. It has a thin distal prolongation which is reticular in appearance when seen on the flat. According to Retzius this thin part is attached to the lamina reticularis. The lower surface of the membrane rests on the

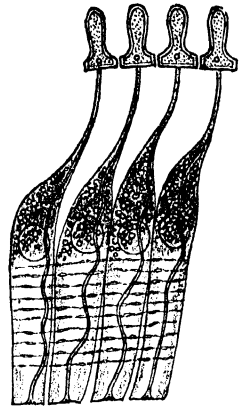


FIG. 662.—FOUR CELLS OF DEITERS FROM THE RABBIT. (G. Retzius.) Highly magnified.

The varicose lines are nerve-fibres. The phalangeal processes are attached above to a portion of the lamina reticularis.

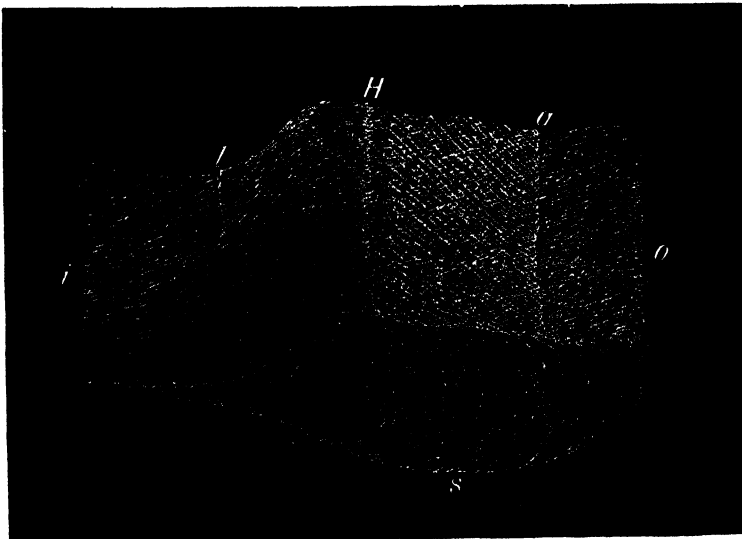


FIG. 663.—PORTION OF MEMBRANA TECTORIA OF PIG, DISPLAYING THE UNDER SURFACE AND A CROSS SECTION. (Hardesty.)

t, thinner edge by which it is attached to the limbus; o, distal ledge; s, section showing arrangement of crossed fibres; l, line impressed by edge of limbus; H, line of Hensen, which overlies the heads of the rods of Corti; H to a, latticed layer on under surface. The thin prolongation at the distal edge is not shown.

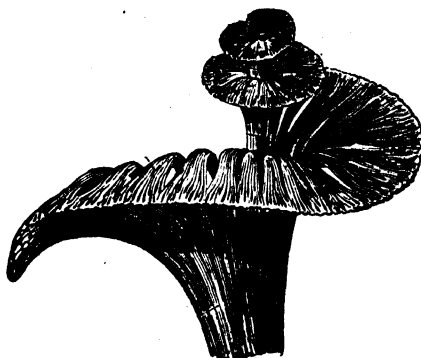


FIG. 664.—GENERAL VIEW OF THE MODE OF DISTRIBUTION OF THE COCHLEAR NERVE, ALL THE OTHER PARTS HAVING BEEN REMOVED. (Arnold.)

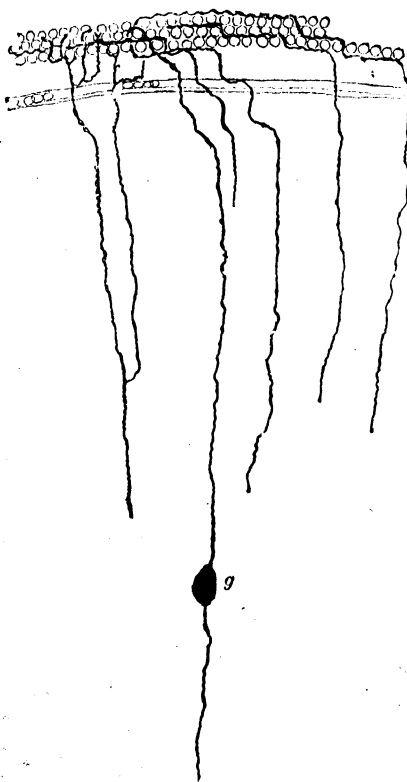


FIG. 665.—ENDING OF SOME OF THE FIBRES OF THE COCHLEAR NERVE AMONG THE HAIR-CELLS. (G. Retzius.)

This preparation is made by the Golgi method, and is viewed from above. *g*, a cell belonging to the spiral ganglion.

epithelium of the organ of Corti during life, although in sections it usually appears raised a short distance above the auditory hairs.

The fibres of the cochlear branch of the auditory nerve enter the base of the columella, and run in canals through its substance (figs. 656 to 659), being gradually deflected outwards as they pass through it into the spiral lamina (fig. 664); at the base of this they pass into a continuous ganglionic cord (*spiral ganglion, ganglion of the cochlea*). It is from the bipolar cells of this ganglion that the auditory fibres originate.

The peripheral fibres (fig. 665) pass out from the other side of the ganglion-cells. Traversing the spiral lamina they emerge in bundles, and, having lost their myelin sheath, enter the inner hair-cell region. Here some of them turn at a right angle and are directly applied to the inner hair-cells, while others cross the tunnel of Corti, to become applied in like manner to the outer hair-cells and the cells of Deiters (fig. 659). The nerve-fibres apparently lie in close contact with these cells, but it is usually stated that there is no direct continuity between the fibrils and the cell-substance. But some authors affirm that they can be traced into the cytoplasm of the cells of Deiters and that the same is true for the nerve-fibres which end in the cristæ of the ampullæ of the semicircular canals, and in the maculæ of the saccule and utricle (Kolmer).

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